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PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN THE BAHAMAS

by

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To

Clement, Nico and Eddie

ABSTRACT

The major purpose of the study reported in this dissertation was to discover the extent to which teacher education programs in The Bahamas were perceived as being effective in providing prospective teachers with the competence needed for successful performance. A further purpose was to discover specific areas of strength and possible weaknesses in those programs. The conceptual framework within which the study was conducted suggested that successful teaching performance might be defined in terms of the major functions teachers perform in the schools -- i.e., the promotion of the academic, social and personal growth of students. Results of recent research in teaching and in teacher education provided specific indicators which might serve as criteria in the assessment of such performance. A review of literature which focused upon the problems and weaknesses of teacher education revealed the prevalence of conceptual and organizational shortcomings within teacher education practices in a variety of settings. Empirical studies which evaluated actual programs confirmed many of the theoretical propositions advanced.

Data for the present study were sought from a group of teachers who had recently graduated from teacher education programs at the College of The Bahamas, and who had been teaching in Bahamian schools for approximately one year. Supervisors of those teachers were also included as sources of data. Teachers were asked to provide their perceptions of their own performance and of the adequacy of their preparation in thirty-seven items of teacher behaviour included in a questionnaire which was designed specifically for this study. Supervisors were asked to rate the performance of teachers on those same items. Teachers and supervisors were also afforded the opportunity to provide additional information concerning their perceptions of the adequacy of the teacher education programs through open-ended questionnaire items and in semi-structured interviews.

Following a pilot test of the instruments, data were collected over the period of January to May, 1981, and written responses were obtained from thirty-seven teachers and thirty-one supervisors. Twenty-three teachers and seventeen supervisors were interviewed.

The results of the study indicated that, generally, both teachers and supervisors perceived that teachers' performance during their first year of teaching after training was satisfactory, although both groups identified weaknesses which might be related to inadequacies in their preparation. These weaknesses were most consistently perceived in relation to skills of diagnosis and assessment. On the whole, teachers rated their performance higher than did their supervisors, and sometimes the differences were quite marked. Detailed analysis of results revealed that teachers of primary and all-age rural schools viewed their performance more favourably than did junior secondary school teachers. There was, however, least agreement between primary teachers and their supervisors concerning teachers' performance.

Teachers' views of their preparation were generally very positive, but, once again, junior secondary teachers provided the least favourable ratings. In addition, both the type of program teachers had followed, and experience in teaching prior to professional

training seemed to account for some differences in perception concerning the adequacy of preparation.

Major strengths of the programs appeared to lie in those aspects of teaching related to the preparation for and presentation of lessons, and the effective management of the classroom. Weaknesses were perceived in the preparation offered in diagnostic and remedial skills, interpersonal relationships, and in administrative aspects of teaching. Programs were also seen as not having provided adequate information concerning the diversity of school situations teachers would have to face.

Various organizational aspects of the teacher education programs were seen as needing revision: the specification of program guidelines; the length of the programs; the weighting given to various program components; and the arrangements for teaching practice. However, the quality of instruction provided within the programs was seen to be a positive strength, although there were some suggestions that too little demonstration teaching had been done.

From the findings of the study it was concluded that, in general, the programs were capable of producing graduates who could function competently in the schools. Contextual factors appeared to play a mediating role in the degree to which preparation received might be applied in actual school settings. In this regard, the preparation currently provided seemed to be more suitable to the demands of primary and all-age schools than to those of secondary level schools.

The ability of the procedures undertaken in this study to provide insights into the strengths and weaknesses associated with the design and the implementation of the teacher education programs investigated appeared to confirm the utility of the approach as a means of improving organizational planning and practices.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Evaluation of the total organization or parts of it has been identified by various organizational theorists as being one of the important processes in educational administration (Gregg, 1957; Miklos, 1976; Robbins, 1976). Only by systematic appraisal can the validity of current practices be determined and their retention, revision or discontinuance defended.

The evaluation process assumes particular significance when specific aspects of the work of educational organizations come under attack as being ineffectual. In the past few decades, institutions in which teachers are prepared have been subject to widespread public criticism. Charges of falling educational standards and the apparent failure of the schools to produce desired academic or social results in their students have caused both the competence of teachers themselves and the adequacy of their preparation to be called into question.

Woodring wrote:

> Soon after the end of World War II the public schools came under sharp attack from dissatisfied parents, academic professors, journalists, university presidents, a famous admiral, and a popular writer who was convinced that someone named "Johnny" was not learning to read. Much of the criticism was focused on teachers and the kind of education they were receiving (1975:16).

Faced with charges of ineffectiveness, many teacher educators paused to take stock of their efforts, and frequently responded by installing new approaches which seemed to hold promise for the revitalization of the preparation experiences to be undergone by prospective teachers. More and more, also, those responsible for the education of teachers came to realize that, given the importance of the enterprise, it was vital that efforts to improve and upgrade it be unrelenting (Turney, 1977:3).

The tide of criticism has not abated, however. As recently as in June of 1980, Time magazine carried an article entitled "Help! Teacher Can't Teach!". In this article, the inadequacies of both the academic and professional abilities of many American teachers were revealed, and the quality of their preparation was seriously questioned. Similar concerns have been expressed in various other countries of the world.

In the face of this fading public confidence in the value of teachers' professional preparation, many teacher education institutions have felt compelled to examine their practices and to assess their relevance and worth in relation to the actual demands of the schools. For it has been emphasized that "the ultimate criterion for judging a teacher education program is whether it produces competent graduates who enter the profession and perform effectively" (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1971:12).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The need to gauge the effectiveness of teacher education practices is particularly acute in developing countries, where formal education is regarded as an essential key to national development, and the quality of teaching as an essential element in the process.

The central purpose of the present study was to discover the degree to which the teacher education programs offered in The Bahamas were perceived by significant groups of individuals as being effective in providing teachers with the attributes necessary for the successful performance of their teaching roles. A further purpose was to discover areas of strength and possible weaknesses within those programs.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The specific problem investigated in the study was the extent to which a recently-graduated group of teachers and their supervisors in the schools perceived the teacher education programs undergone by those teachers as having been effective in developing in them the skills, attitudes and knowledge deemed necessary for the competent discharge of their duties in the schools.

As the study was exploratory in nature, no research hypotheses were generated. Answers were sought, however, to the following questions:

1. What are the perceptions of a group of first-year teachers and their supervisors concerning the performance of those teachers during their initial year of teaching after training?

2. To what extent are the perceptions of first-year teachers concerning their performance related to (i) differences in grade level, (ii) personal variables, (iii) demographic variables, or (iv) experience in teaching prior to professional training?

3. To what extent do first-year teachers perceive their preparation programs as having assisted them to develop attributes which appear to be necessary for competent teaching?

4. To what extent are the perceptions of first-year teachers concerning their preparation related to (i) differences in grade level, (ii) personal variables, (iii) demographic variables, or (iv) experience in teaching prior to professional training?

5. What are the perceptions of first-year teachers concerning specific areas of strength or weakness in their teacher education programs?

6. Are there any organizational factors within the teacher education programs that teachers or supervisors perceive as having contributed to the level of effectiveness of those programs?

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The present study was undertaken within the context of the Commonwealth of The Bahamas. The specific programs whose perceived effectiveness was examined were those offered in the sole institution in that country in which teachers are prepared: the College of The Bahamas. These programs, like most of their counterparts throughout the developing world, have been patterned largely on models of teacher education adopted in the metropolitan centres of the world. Bacchus (1975:2) reported a growing scepticism concerning the suitability of such models for preparing teachers to perform adequately within the educational context of an emergent society. There is little evidence in the literature, however, that many teacher education programs in developing countries have been studied with a view to determining their adequacy and relevance in terms of the actual demands of the schools they serve.

For this part, Thompson (1972:228) articulated another important area of concern:

> Since up to 90 percent of recurrent educational expenditure may be devoted to teachers' salaries and since the quality of the teaching force crucially affects the quality of educational provision, one might have expected to find in teacher education institutions a ferment of new thinking and concrete research. I do not believe that in general this has been the case.

Thompson's challenge is clear. In developing countries where financial resources are likely to be limited, teacher educators have a particular obligation to ensure that the teachers they prepare can perform productively within the educational system they serve. An important dimension of this responsibility is the need to engage in regular and systematic assessment of the outcomes of current practices. Only in this way can some measure of quality control be established.

JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

The present study is justified in a number of ways:

1. It contributes to the body of research in educational administration which probes the value of the evaluative process as a means of improving organizational planning and practices.

2. It provides information which can contribute to institutional policy decisions pertaining to teacher education.

3. It adds a body of findings from a different context to the steadily growing corpus of evaluative research which seeks to discover relationships between various forms of teacher preparation and subsequent teacher performance.

4. It provides information concerning the generalizability of

the concept that there are certain types of skills, attitudes and knowledge which appear to be basic to successful instructional practice. This is pertinent, since, as Bacchus (1975:2) noted, teacher education practices in developing countries are based on "the general assumption of the universality of the role of the teacher . . ."

5. The findings of the study provide information concerning the perceived relevance to actual school settings of the pre-service preparation offered to prospective teachers in The Bahamas, and identify areas of weakness in teacher competency in which in-service education appears to be needed. This information should provide a valuable data base for future decisions concerning program revision or renewal.

6. The conduct of the study has provided an opportunity for practitioners in the field (a) to describe what they consider to be the most essential elements of successful teaching performance, and (b) to provide an assessment of the performance of first-year teachers, and, indirectly, an assessment of the preparation programs undergone by those teachers.

7. Finally, from the findings of this study, directions for future research have been identified.

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

The following assumptions were central to the purposes of this study:

1. It was assumed that the overarching objective of programs of

teacher education was to produce teachers capable of high quality performance in actual school settings.

2. It was assumed that the effectiveness of such programs must ultimately be judged by that criterion.

3. It was assumed that the perceptions and opinions of teacher education graduates and their supervisors would provide a useful and reasonably valid picture of the effectiveness of preparation programs.

4. It was assumed that the use of questionnaires and interviews was an appropriate means by which to obtain data relative to the perceptions and opinions of teachers and their supervisors.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

For the sake of clarity, the following definitions are provided for terms used in the present study:

All-Age Schools

In The Bahamas, schools in rural communities comprising grades one through eight (and sometimes grades one through ten) are designated "all-age schools."

Cooperating Teacher

The regular classroom teacher of the class in which a student teacher carries out his practice teaching is designated the "cooperating teacher."

Effectiveness

Houston (1972:51) defined "effectiveness" in relation to program evaluation as "impact, the capacity of a program to cause changes in those who are exposed to it." (His emphasis). In this study, the concept is adopted, in somewhat modified form. "Effectiveness" will be considered as the capacity of a program to bring about desired changes in those who are exposed to it.

Family Islands

In The Bahamas, all the islands other than that on which the capital, Nassau, is located are termed "Family Islands" (Figure 1). Only on one of these islands, Grand Bahama, is there an urban centre -- Freeport. In all other instances, settlements are rural in nature.

First-Year Teacher

In this study, the term "first-year teacher" refers to a teacher who has just completed, or who is in the process of completing, his first year of teaching after professional training. In The Bahamas, a number of such individuals will have had experience as untrained teachers in the school system prior to entering College.

Head of Department

The teacher who is charged with coordinating and directing the teaching of a certain subject or group of related subjects is designated the "head of department."

Junior Secondary Schools

Schools comprising grades seven through nine and attended by children aged twelve through fourteen are termed "junior secondary schools."

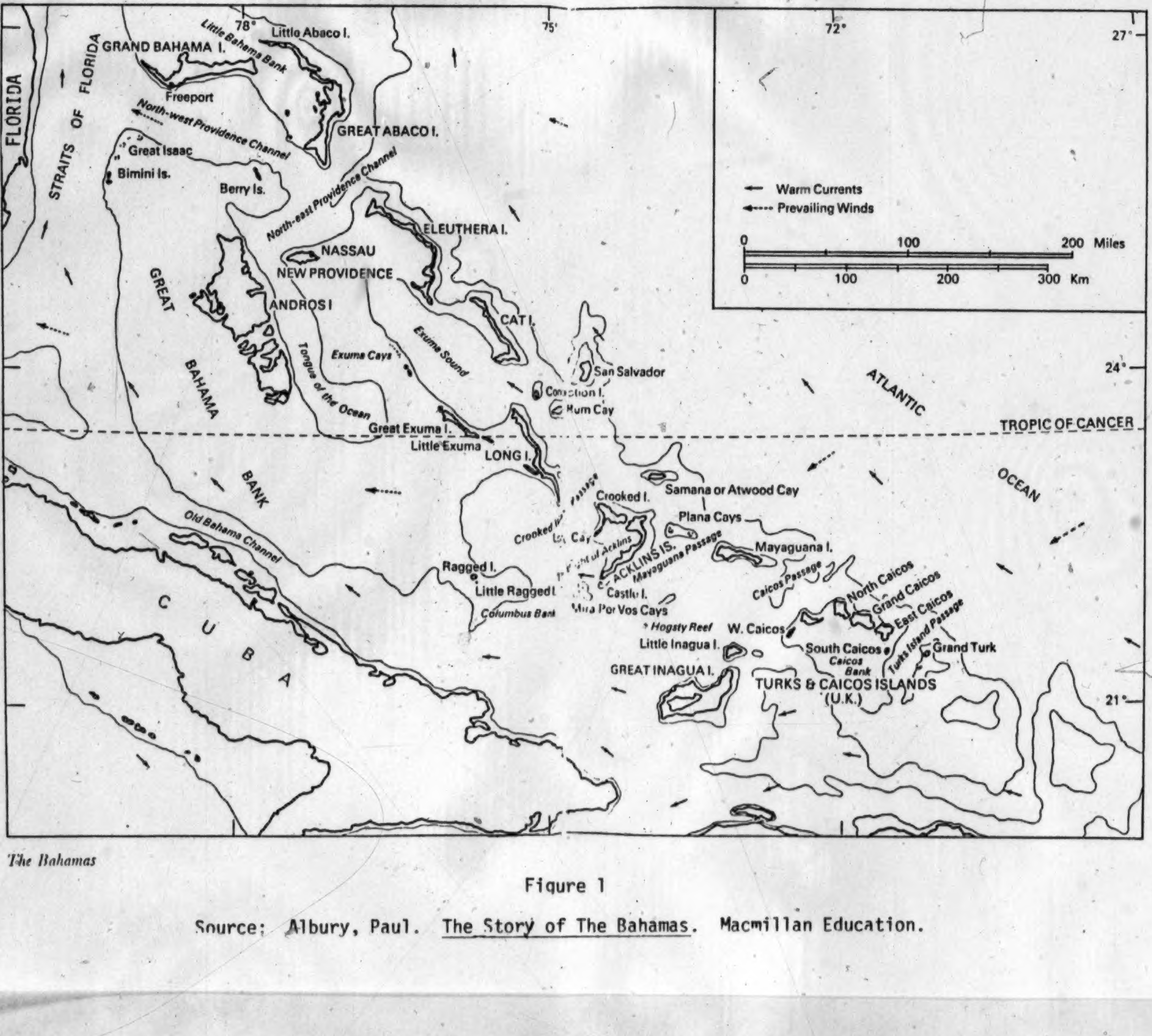

FLORIDA
STRAITS OF FLORIDA
78°
75°
72°
27°
24°
21°
GRAND BAHAMA I.
Little Bahama Bank
Little Abaco I.
Freeport
GREAT ABACO I.
North-west Providence Channel
Great Isaac
Bimini Is.
Berry Is.
North-east Providence Channel
ELEUTHERA I.
NASSAU
NEW PROVIDENCE
ANDROS I
GREAT BAHAMA BANK
Tongue of the Ocean
Exuma Cays
Exuma Sound
CAT I.
San Salvador
Conception I.
Rum Cay
Great Exuma I.
Little Exuma
LONG I.
TROPIC OF CANCER
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Samana or Atwood Cay
Crooked I.
Crooked Island Passage
Plana Cays
Mayaguana I.
ACKLINS IS.
Bight of Acklins
Mayaguana Passage
Ragged I.
Little Ragged I.
Columbus Bank
Castle I.
Mira Por Vos Cays
Hogsty Reef
Caicos Passage
North Caicos
Grand Caicos
East Caicos
Turks Island Passage
W. Caicos
South Caicos
Caicos Bank
Grand Turk
Little Inagua I.
GREAT INAGUA I.
TURKS & CAICOS ISLANDS (U.K.)
Old Bahama Channel
CUBA
Warm Currents
Prevailing Winds
0 100 200 Miles
0 100 200 300 Km
The Bahamas

Figure 1

Source: Albury, Paul. The Story of The Bahamas. Macmillan Education.

Primary Schools

Schools comprising grades one through six and attended by children aged five through eleven are termed "primary schools."

Senior Secondary Schools

Schools comprising grades ten through twelve and attended by children aged fifteen through seventeen are termed "senior secondary schools."

Supervisor

In this study, the term "supervisor" refers to the individual charged with overseeing the performance of other teachers. In primary schools, this person is usually the principal. In secondary schools, the supervisor may be either the principal or the head of department.

Teacher Behaviours

The term is used in this study to describe specific acts performed by the teacher in the execution of all aspects of his teaching role. It is presumed that such acts represent an overt manifestation of the synthesis of skills, attitudes and knowledge possessed by the teacher.

Teacher Education Program

The sequence of courses, workshops, clinical experiences and practice teaching activities provided for prospective teachers in a college or university is termed a "teacher education program."

Teaching Division

An administrative unit encompassing instructional activities in a range of related subject areas within a multi-purpose post-secondary institution is termed a "teaching division" (Figure 2).

Teaching Practice

The period of supervised student teaching carried out in schools is termed "teaching practice."

DELIMITATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Delimitations

1. The study was delimited to teacher education programs offered at the College of The Bahamas.

2. Sources of data were delimited to (i) teachers who had graduated from the College of The Bahamas in 1979 and who were teaching in The Bahamas in 1980-81, and (ii) the supervisors of those teachers.

Limitations

1. The study is limited primarily by a factor which affects all follow-up studies of this kind: its reliance upon the perceptions, recollections and opinions of the participants.

2. A further limitation resides in the nature of the study itself: since findings may be somewhat situation specific, generalizations will have to be made with caution.

ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

This chapter has presented (1) an introduction to the problem, (2) the purpose of the study, (3) the statement of the problem, (4) the background to the study, (5) the justification for the study, (6) the

Soldier Road Campus

Oakes Field Campus

APPLIED SCIENCES DIVISION	BUSINESS AND ADMINISTRATIVE STUDIES DIVISION	TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL STUDIES DIVISION	EDUCATION DIVISION	HUMANITIES DIVISION	NATURAL SCIENCES DIVISION	SOCIAL SCIENCES DIVISION
(APSC)	(BAST)	(TVST)	(EDUC)	(HMNS)	(NASC)	(SOSC)
Electronics	Accounting	Architectural Drafting	Methodology of Teaching Subjects	Art	Agriculture	History
Electrical Engineering	Banking and Finance	Automobile Mechanics	Philosophy of Education	Drama	Biology	Geography
Mechanical Engineering	Business Administration	Carpentry and Joinery	Psychology of Education	English Language	Chemistry	Political Science
	Management	Commercial Art	Sociology of Education	English Literature	Mathematics	Psychology
	Secretarial Studies	Cosmetology	Techniques and Management	French	Physics	Religious Studies
		Masonry	Testing and Evaluation	German		Sociology
		Painting and Decorating		Linguistics		
		Plumbing		Music		
		Welding		Philosophy		
				Spanish		

Figure 2

Teaching Divisions: College of The Bahamas basic assumptions underlying the study, (7) the definition of terms, and (8) the delimitations and limitations of the study.

Chapter 2 explores the theoretical perspectives and empirical findings which provided the conceptual framework for the study. Relevant literature is reviewed in Chapter 3. In Chapter 4, the research design and the methodology employed in the collection and analysis of data are described. Chapter 5 presents the results of the analysis of questionnaire and interview data pertaining to the perceptions of teachers and their supervisors concerning teachers' performance. Chapter 6 examines the results of the analysis of questionnaire and interview data pertaining to teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of their preparation. Chapter 7 reviews those organizational factors within the College of The Bahamas which teachers and their supervisors perceive as having contributed to the level of effectiveness of teacher education programs. In the last chapter, the findings of the study are summarized, and the conclusions, recommendations and implications arising from those findings are presented.

CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Assessment of the effectiveness of programs of professional training would seem to entail, as a necessary preliminary undertaking, a conceptual analysis of (1) the purposes of such programs, (2) the nature of the work for which practitioners are prepared, and (3) the implications of this latter for competent professional performance. Further, it is important, also, to determine what aspects of professional performance may legitimately be expected to be developed through a program of training. From the clarification of these relevant issues, specific criteria may emerge by which the effectiveness of such programs may be judged.

In an investigation aimed at discovering the effectiveness of programs designed for the preparation of teachers, therefore, it was deemed appropriate to examine theoretical perspectives and empirical findings which might shed light on the following: the purposes of teacher education; the purposes and functions of the schools; the roles and functions of the teacher; the concept of effectiveness in teaching. Moreover, since it was also necessary to develop a feasible framework to guide the collection of data by which the effectiveness of the programs might be assessed, a variety of approaches to program evaluation were examined as well.

The Purposes of Teacher Education

In a review of the historical development of teacher education, Woodring (1975:1) indicated that, if teacher education were defined simply as the education of those who were to become teachers, its history would be coterminous with education itself, for the oldest form of teacher education lay in the observation and emulation of a master. The establishment of special institutions, or programs within institutions, specifically devoted to the preparation of teachers, has been dictated by the needs of the schools for numbers of teachers to be available at regular intervals. As Woodring pointed out, the normal school, the oldest formal teacher education institution, did not flourish until the eighteenth century, when "efforts to extend public education to all social classes greatly increased the demand for teachers" (1975:1-2).

The reasoning which appears to underlie the centralization of training within an organizational setting was aptly summarized by Turner (1971:10) who maintained that the point of preservice teacher education was to produce the following advantages: (1) the trained teacher should perform more proficiently and productively all aspects of the teacher's work; and (2) the cost of on-the-job training would be reduced. The overall purposes of teacher education, therefore would seem to be (a) to familiarize prospective teachers with the nature of the tasks they will be required to perform in their roles as practitioners in a school setting, and (b) to provide them with the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for adequate discharge of their responsibilities. The tasks which teachers are required to perform and the behaviours which they employ in the execution of those tasks are closely related to the purposes and functions of the schools.

Purposes and Functions of the Schools and Roles and Functions of the Teacher

It is evident that much valuable transmission of knowledge and skills occurs outside the formal setting of the school. Children learn many important things from the variety of informal interactions which they experience in the familial or community context. Why, then, does society demand that for extended periods of time they be segregated within special institutions, in the care of virtual strangers, whose specific purpose is to instruct them? Joyce (1975:112) asserted that schools were most commonly based on an economic conception of man. He pointed out that the establishment of public education was rooted in the conviction that "participants in a mass society, its governmental processes, and its emerging economic system required literacy and occupationally-relevant skills." As formal educational systems became more sophisticated, moreover, education became "an indispensable means of status maintenance and acquisition for most persons" (Joyce, 1975:114). Most of the movements that have focused upon the extension of educational opportunity, in Joyce's view, have done so in order to "include participation by more members of society in education and its concomitant benefits" (1975:114).

It was this view of education that, in the decades following the Second World War, fired the almost universal drive to increase the quantity and quality of schooling provided by national governments. Especially it gave impetus to programs designed to bring more fully into the mainstream of the educational process formerly disadvantaged groups: minorities of all kinds in the developed nations, and underprivileged rural and urban groups in developing areas. Pearl et al. (1969:3) summed up the guiding premise when they defined education as the means by which all citizens were afforded access to a wide range of choices in all aspects of life.

The outcomes of formal education which are most strongly valued by parents, governments and communities at large generally reflect this orientation. All these groups esteem most those effects of schooling which lead to clearly understood credentials, i.e., tangible academic achievement, symbolized by high grades or examination results (Joyce, 1975:115). This position is understandable, for academic credentials are those which most visibly appear to lead to improved opportunities for successful careers in adult life.

Such outcomes assume particular importance in new nations whose people, emerging from a colonial past, view success in formal education as a means of transcending their former status. Bacchus (1975:5) described it in this way:

> The academic type of education, though irrelevant to the needs of the traditional sector, provides a passport for entry into the modernizing sector of the economy and, with the income differentials and job security which this sector provides, it is no wonder that the population continues to demand this "irrelevant" education.

This view was confirmed by Paige (1979:207) who wrote:

> But formal education in the developing nations is explicitly designed to promote a wide range of economic and other development objectives. Harbison and Myers' (1964, p. 181) claim that "education is the key that unlocks the door to modernization" is rearticulated in one form or another by educational planners throughout the developing world.

Clearly, then, the promotion of academic learning is a fundamental function of the schools, and a prime concern of the teacher must be to participate effectively in the enterprise.

The school has, however, other roles to play. Joyce (1975:111) characterized the school as a social institution which "lies very close to the value core of the society," and, indeed, this institution has always served as an important vehicle for the transmission of values from one generation to another. This function was described by Goble (1979:21) as the school's objective to

> transmit the mythology -- the inherited conglomerate of beliefs, taboos, perceptions and aspirations that carries the message of what is good and what is bad for the health of the community.

Foster (1979:12) quoted the view expressed by Elkin and Handel (1972) that the school serves as society's principal agency for developing abilities which allow the child to become less dependent on family and more independent in functioning in and serving the needs of society. She identified two distinct dimensions to the socializing functions of the contemporary school, as these were conceptualized by David Goslin (1965): the conservative role (by which the continuity of the culture was assured), and the contemporary role (to support innovation and change). These two dimensions are discernible in society's expectations for the schools.

The salience of this dichotomy in the socializing function of the school is particularly marked within the context of the developing world. Bacchus (1975:2) pointed out that, initially, the role of education in colonial territories, as this was expressed, for example, in the 1925 Report by the Advisory Committee on Native Education in British Tropical African Dependencies, was "to produce Christian boys, diligent, obedient, straightforward, kind and God-fearing" and to "strengthen will power" and develop in the pupils the discipline of work. Later, however, education was seen to be a promising means of transforming social structures, and to play a major role as "a solvent in a system of marked social differentiation" (Bacchus, 1975:4). In effect, though, many of the values inherent in the Western-style education which had been imported into these societies were alien to the conditions which actually prevailed in the lives of the majority of the people, and formal education became instead "an explicit reinforcer of social privilege, political elitism and economic injustice" (Bacchus, 1975:4). The product of such an education was often, therefore, alienated from the realities of his environment.

A concern to correct this situation has preoccupied leaders of many emerging nations. The challenge which they faced was summarized by Bacchus (1975:8) as a need to create an educational system which would

> inculcate values which can contribute to the development of a new social order, offer an education which does not divorce its participants from the society and which teaches them not to despise the wisdom of their forefathers while at the same time introducing them to the knowledge and skills of modern activities . . .

This ideal might, indeed, be considered a universal one toward which designers of educational systems throughout the world are likely to be striving. Implicit in such an objective is the need for careful thought and logical planning, for, as Katz (1979:102) stressed, it is the deliberate nature of the activities within the school which most strongly distinguishes it from other socializing agencies such as the family. The implications for the teacher's role are significant: he must not only understand the complexity of the process in which he is involved and be committed to it, but he must also possess the knowledge, skill and sensitivity which will enable him to participate effectively in it.

However, Katz (1979:102) drew attention to the fact that very important socializing processes are probably happening most of the time -- many of them unintentional. She pointed out the powerful effects of modelling in many aspects of socialization (1979:102), thus underlining, by implication, the importance of the role of the teacher which Foster (1979:13) had also noted:

> The teacher functions as the main bridge between the home and the school for the child. It is the teacher who introduces to the young child experiences and people that are not usually a part of the more isolated family context. It is the teacher who assists the child to learn and value those specific abilities and attitudes which are articulated in school programs for the purpose of developing socialization skills identified as necessary to succeed in adult society. In this capacity teachers become mediators or agents of the socialization process.

Foster discussed, in addition, how vital the teacher was in influencing the perceptions children developed of themselves. The teacher's evaluation of the child's school achievement and social performance tended, in Foster's view, to determine the child's assessment of himself (1979:14). Moreover, the level of success a child was likely to achieve often reflected the expectations the teacher held for him. It was evident, then, that teachers should be very conscious of their power in this respect. They should possess positive attitudes towards children's ability to succeed, as well as the skills necessary for the creation and maintenance of supportive learning environments in which individual children were encouraged and valued (Foster, 1979:14).

Certain major dimensions of the teacher's role appear to emerge from the foregoing discussion: the teacher has a responsibility to promote the achievement of cognitive skills and also to help create in his pupils a sense of self-worth and confidence in their individual identities and potential. He must, in addition, reflect in his approach to his work an awareness of the needs and imperatives of a constantly changing and developing society. Furthermore, the discharge of these responsibilities occurs within an organizational setting which places its own particular demands upon the teacher. He is obliged to work in proximity to other individuals with whom he must share available resources. He operates within an administrative structure which requires not only that he carry out his instructional activities, but that he record and account for them and for student performance as well. He must interpret and implement policies which define the parameters within which he is to work. In the contemporary world of education, moreover, such policies are likely to change frequently and significantly.

Goble and Porter (1977:13) reported certain of the kinds of developments occurring within the organization of schools which had implications for the ways in which teachers were called upon to fulfil their roles. These included:

> -- more diversified functions in the instructional process . . .
> -- a shift in emphasis from transmission of knowledge to organization of the pupil's learning . . .
> -- individualization of learning and a changed structure in teacher-student relationships;
> -- wider use of modern educational technology . . .
> -- larger acceptance of broader co-operation with other teachers in schools and a changed structure or relationships between teachers;
> -- the necessity to work more closely with parents and other people in the community . . .

Teachers would, therefore, have to be prepared to function within this more flexible and cooperative conceptualization of their roles.

Implications for Teacher Education

Recognition of the ever-increasing and changing demands being placed upon teachers, and concern that traditional methods of preparation were inadequate to produce individuals capable of meeting the challenges with which they were likely to be faced, have prompted many teacher educators to reassess their concepts of how teachers should be trained, and to revise their actual practices. The approaches which have emerged reflect specific interpretations of the ways in which teachers might best perform their varied functions.

In the systems models of teacher education produced in response to the United States Office of Education's 1968 request for such proposals, the underlying view of the teacher presented appeared to be that he was a clinician, a specialist member of an instructional team, possessing strategies for making instructional decisions, and possessing also "the needed repertoire of knowledge and clinical skills for carrying out his decisions" (Joyce, 1972:208). Consonant with this view of the teacher's role, competencies deemed necessary for teaching were defined in terms of specific behaviours, and specific learning experiences were designed to provide the prospective teacher with those competencies (Joyce, 1972:208).

Macdonald's recommendation for reform in Canadian teacher education reflected an orientation which was not dissimilar. "Educational efficiency," he maintained, "requires that teachers be functional specialists, not generalists" (1970:42). This "functional specialization" meant "the mapping out of instruction into a number of separate and relatively distinct areas, each with its own population of differently prepared and differently active staff" (1970:48). As the foundation for reform in teacher education, Macdonald advocated a detailed analysis of the tasks of teaching in order to build models of teacher behaviour which might serve as training criteria (1970:14).

In strong contrast to the foregoing positions, that adopted by Combs (1974:8) reflected the conviction that the effective teacher was "a unique human being who has learned to use himself effectively and efficiently to carry out his own and society's purposes in the education of others." In his recommendations for new guidelines for teacher education, Combs identified crucial areas in the "perceptual organization" of the teacher which had to be developed in programs of training. These included: a thorough knowledge and understanding of his subject and of other people; self-confidence; a philosophical and psychological understanding of the purposes and processes of learning; and a command of methods which would permit him to carry out his purposes (1974:22). Good teaching was not, Combs later insisted (1978:558), merely a question of right methods or behaviours, but "a problem-solving matter, having to do with the teacher's unique use of self. . . ." Teacher education was, as a consequence, a problem in "personal becoming" and in such programs, learning had to be personal and experiential. As Joyce has observed (1972:213), this type of position appeared almost to deny that there could be agreement on the performance of a capable teacher, since each was seen to be unique, in unique interaction with his students.

The orientation reflected in most contemporary teacher education programs, however, probably lies somewhere between the two extreme positions described, reflecting a perception that it is important both to develop the individual personalities and talents of teachers and to provide them with a repertoire of specialized knowledge and skills upon which to draw in the execution of their teaching responsibilities.

Goodridge's recommendations for teacher education in the Caribbean appear to summarize this contention:

> Teacher-trainers in the Caribbean, like teacher-trainers elsewhere, must continue to place emphasis on the trainee-teacher's understanding of the society and the communities in which his professional activity will take place, of the children and the disciplines he will be called upon to teach, and on his development of the array of teaching skills and strategies necessary in today's classrooms. But no less important should be our conception of his role/s as a teacher, since "the beliefs, feelings, assumptions of teachers are the air of the learning environment; they determine the quality of life within it" (Postman and Weingartner, 1969) (1974:48).

This review of perspectives on the purposes of schools, the role and functions of the teachers within them, and the implications which these have for teacher education, suggests certain broad criteria by which ongoing programs of teacher preparation might be judged: their success in providing teachers with skills which might enable them to enhance pupils' academic learning; their success in providing teachers with knowledge and experiences which might prepare them to respond sensitively to the socializing aspects of their role; and their degree of success in equipping teachers to deal with the varying ways in which they may be called upon to carry out their responsibilities.

More specific indicators of the kinds of teacher skills, knowledge and attitudes involved in the foregoing may be gleaned from the research which has sought to delineate the nature of effective teaching.

Effectiveness in Teaching

The concern to determine the qualities, abilities or behaviours which distinguish a "good" teacher has preoccupied educators for generations. Various approaches have been adopted in the attempt to define attributes which might confidently be recognized as characterizing the effective teacher. One such approach focused upon those identifying characteristics which appeared to be associated with teachers considered effective.

Characteristics of Effective Teaching

Medley (1972:431) indicated that early studies in this vein tended to concentrate primarily upon developing lists of desirable teacher traits. Some researchers sought the views of students, having them describe teachers whom they liked best, liked least, or thought most effective. Among the characteristics identified in one such study as distinguishing among the best and least liked teachers were: teaching skill (clear explanations, use of examples, good organization, etc.), cheerful and good-natured disposition, patience, fairness and impartiality, friendliness, interest in pupils (Medley,1972:431). In other studies, where "expert" judgment was sought, teacher traits tended to include such global qualities as "adaptability", "considerateness," "enthusiasm," "good judgment," "honesty," and "magnetism." These broad terms were seldom closely defined, however, and Medley maintained (1972:432) that, for the purpose of illuminating the concept of effective teaching, lists of this kind were even less useful than those provided by students, for they specified less about a teacher's classroom behaviour.

A.S. Barr undertook, in 1930, an extensive review of teacher rating scales, with a view to determining what characteristics appeared to be most highly valued by supervisors and administrators. This effort did not prove very helpful, for there seemed to be little consensus on the two hundred and nine scale reviewed by Barr concerning the types of characteristics which should be rated. Some of the areas of concern most commonly identified, though, were: instruction, classroom management, professional attitude, choice of subject matter, personal habits and discipline (Medley, 1972:433). The basic weakness of such attempts to delineate effective teaching was pointed out by Medley (1972:433), who contended that "the most serious limitation to this approach to the problem of describing the effective teacher was that none of the studies included any measure of teacher effects on pupils." This dimension was to assume prominence in later research.

The massive study of teacher characteristics undertaken by Ryans (1960), however, arose from the conviction that

> if certain patterns of teacher behavior and characteristics could be mapped out, it should be possible to ascertain the extent of the relation between such patterns and specified criteria deduced from whatever definition or concept of teacher effectiveness one might choose (1960:5).

Ryans identified three major classroom behaviour patterns: one which reflected understanding, friendliness and responsiveness versus aloofness and egocentrism on the part of the teacher; the second reflecting responsible, businesslike and systematic versus evading, unplanned and slipshod teacher behaviour; the third reflecting stimulating, imaginative and original versus dull and routine teacher behaviour (1960:102). Although Ryans' concern was not primarily to consider the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of particular teacher behaviours, one aspect of his study did involve the identification and comparison of teachers who fell into different groups with regard to the general classroom behaviour patterns described. Among the characteristics of the teachers rated as "high" in the positive behaviours listed were their generosity in appraisals of the behaviour and motives of other persons, their enjoyment of pupil relationships, their preference for non-directive classroom procedures, their superior verbal intelligence, and their superior emotional adjustment. Teachers rated "low," on the other hand, were characterized by a tendency to be restrictive and critical in their appraisals of other persons, to express less favourable opinions of pupils, to manifest less high verbal intelligence and show less satisfactory emotional adjustment (1960:398). These findings were presented somewhat tentatively by Ryans, however, and he emphasized the need for caution when generalizing them to other populations. They did, nevertheless, bear out a number of the intuitive findings identified in earlier studies.

In Britain, Taylor (1962:258-99) found, in a study of characteristics of the good teacher as these were perceived by children, that pupils tended to downplay the importance of teachers' personal qualities, and, in general, to value most highly the "good" teacher's training. In Taylor's view, this reflected, perhaps, an important need that children felt -- to be taught and to learn (1962:264).

Effective Teacher Behaviours

The question of identifying the elements of "good" teaching continued to be central, however, and the concern focused upon defining behaviours which appeared likely to influence students' learning. Rosenshine and Furst (1971:40) stated that educational researchers had not provided teacher educators with repertoires of teaching skills which might confidently be recommended to prospective teachers as liable to promote student achievement. Their review of research in teaching did, nevertheless, yield ten characteristics which appeared to be positively related to student achievement: clarity, variability, enthusiasm, task orientation, student opportunity to learn, use of students' ideas (indirectness), use of structuring comments, use of multiple levels of discourse, probing and the use of appropriate levels of difficulty in instruction (1971:54).

Although the Rosenshine and Furst review has been challenged on a variety of methodological grounds, these findings did represent a pioneering attempt to synthesize the empirical work of many individual investigators, and to suggest certain global categories of behaviour which might profitably be pursued by both teachers and teacher educators.

For his part, Gage (1972:31), in a review of empirical research on teaching, questioned the pessimism prevalent concerning the value of the findings of such research. He maintained that, by carefully sifting the literature and identifying similar dimensions measured by a variety of means, one could find evidence from which one might draw the inference that certain specific types of behaviour were desirable in teachers. He cited as examples four of the dimensions which had appeared on the Rosenshine and Furst list and for which such procedures would yield positive results: warmth, indirectness, cognitive orientation and enthusiasm (1972:34-39). Gage provided more precise definitions of these terms, claiming that "warmth" described a quality present in teachers who tended to behave "approvingly, acceptantly, and supportively;" and who tended to "speak well of their own students, students in general, and people in general." Further, Gage stated, such teachers "tend to like and trust rather than fear other people of all kinds" (1972:35). "Indirectness" as it was used by Gage encompassed two dimensions of teacher behaviour (1972:36): the encouragement, acceptance and use of student ideas, and the encouragement of "learning by discovery." The "cognitive orientation" of the teacher seemed to reflect the teacher's intellectual grasp of what he was trying to teach, while "enthusiasm" seemed to include not only the intrinsic emotion felt by the teacher for his work, but also his ability to communicate this through his own teaching (1972:38).

Researchers, nevertheless, continued to express concern about the difficulties inherent in attempting to studying teaching effectiveness through the standard methodologies. Berliner (1976), for example, identified certain specific categories of problems which, in his view, appeared to limit the usefulness of much of the research conducted in this area. These problems arose from the instrumentation, methodology and statistical procedures used in studying ways in which teachers affected students (1976:5). Berliner maintained for instance, that the use of standardized tests as a means of measuring pupil growth was not always appropriate, for (1) such tests might not reflect what had actually been taught in the classroom, and (2) their strong correlation with intelligence tests made their value as legitimate measures of teacher effects questionable (particularly with respect to certain types of children) (1976:6). When tests specially designed for specific teaching units were used, these provided a more valid outcome measure. It was difficult to tell, however, how useful an estimate such tests provided of teachers' long-term effectiveness (1976:6).

Berliner contended, moreover, that current research in teaching seldom took into account pupils' feelings about their learning experiences -- the affective outcomes of teaching, which also needed to be addressed (1976:6). In his opinion, research to date had not dealt effectively, either, with the issues of appropriateness or stability of teacher behaviour (1976:6-7). A further question to be considered was how much could "legitimately be expected of teachers or schools as an influence of student growth" (1976:9). Student performance was clearly strongly influenced by intelligence, ethnicity and socio-economic status, as well as by the student's own inclination to participate in the work.

An additional consideration raised by Berliner was the fact that dimensions of teacher effectiveness were apparently related to the particular curriculum areas studied (1976:9). Teacher effects seemed to account for potentially more variance in subjects in which home background influence was less likely to be powerful, i.e., in subjects other than reading, social studies or language arts. Researchers typically, however, studied teaching in just those areas where it was hardest to relate student performance to teaching behaviour.

These and other shortcomings observed in current research on teaching, and uneasiness over the prevailing style of psychological research, caused a number of educational researchers to examine more critically their accomplishments to date (Berliner and Tikunoff, 1976:24). One outcome of this was the search for other means of studying teaching. In an attempt, for example, to arrive at a more qualitative description of teacher behaviour, the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development undertook an ethnographic study of second and fifth grade reading and mathematics classrooms (Berliner and Tikunoff, 1976).

Observers who were unaware of the measured effectiveness of the teachers they observed recorded raw teaching behaviours. From the accounts of teacher behaviour, concepts were defined and then combined into variables which were used to differentiate between more and less effective teachers, as these had been identified by means of special teaching units (1976:26). Findings indicated some twenty-one generic variables, i.e., variables which consistently differentiated between more and less effective teachers in all classrooms studied. The behaviours consistently associated with more effective teachers indicated that such teachers were perceived as having mastery over their subject matter and the ability to use it appropriately in structuring learning tasks to suit individual needs. More effective teachers, also, gave of their time and attention to all students, and demonstrated their respect and affection for those students. Classroom control was consistent and democratic, with good behaviour being positively reinforced. More effective teachers appeared to possess the ability to be flexible -- to adjust to and capitalize upon unexpected situations. Lessons were appropriately paced and structured, and a variety of instructional materials used in the classrooms of those teachers described as being more effective (Berliner and Tikunoff, 1976:29).

It may be seen that the findings of this study confirmed, in more specific terms, many of the more global categories of behaviour cited in earlier research as being associated with effective teaching. This concern to define in more operational terms specific behaviours associated with students' academic growth has continued to dominate recent investigations. It appears largely to have been accepted that a focus upon what teachers can do to enhance student learning is likely to prove a more productive approach to defining effectiveness in teaching than previous efforts to describe teacher characteristics. Such research has been marked also by attempts to arrive at an ever narrower definition of teaching strategies to be employed and of circumstances in which they may most appropriately be used.

In one such undertaking, Medley (1977) adopted a clearly-defined strategy for resolving the problems posed by the apparent inconsistencies and contradictions in available studies on effectiveness in teaching. He reviewed two hundred and eighty-nine such studies on the assumption, as he later stated, that if certain rigorous criteria of quality were applied to the results, most of the inconsistencies would disappear (1979:16). Only studies in which the following criteria were met were retained: effective teaching was measured in terms of student gains; clear descriptions of teacher behaviours were given; generalizability of findings were established; findings were revealed as important in terms of strong process-product relationships (1979:16-19). Some six hundred relationships concerning the behaviours of effective and ineffective teachers were identified, each supported by a strong relationship.

Although the primary objective of Medley's report was to provide direct access to the findings of research on teacher effectiveness to teacher educators (1977:10), he summarized some of the most consistent findings and provided an interpretation of them which is pertinent in the present context for it examines a variety of dimensions not always discussed in detail in individual studies. He drew attention to relationships between cognitive and affective outcomes, the effects which certain behaviours appeared to have on pupils of differing socio-economic status, and the effects of certain behaviours on pupils of different grade levels, and in different subject areas.

These analyses revealed findings worthy of note. They suggested, for example, that "a competent teacher of subject matter is likely to be developing positive attitudes toward school as well" (1977:13). Further, teachers who produced maximum achievement gains also appeared to improve pupils' self-concept the most. In classes at the level of Grade three or below, there was relatively little difference in the behaviours of teachers effective in either of the core areas of reading or arithmetic (1977:13). However, the behaviour patterns of teachers effective with pupils of low socio-economic status did differ from those of teachers effective with pupils of high socio-economic status. The significance of pupils' socio-economic status in the nature of competent teacher behaviour appeared to Medley, therefore, to have clear implications for teacher educators: it suggested that "teacher education students may need to learn very different strategies for dealing with pupils from different backgrounds, at least in these earlier grades" (1977:21). In a study like the present one where the majority of teachers participating are involved with the teaching of students of low socio-economic background, the findings of the Medley review are extremely relevant.

The significance of research in teaching to the purposes of teacher education is highlighted in Borich's (1979) attempt to discover how process-product research might contribute to the development of competencies which could constitute a focus for training purposes. Borich elaborated upon five on the process-product studies from among those most heavily cited in Medley's review, and summarized the competency implications they contained. In this regard, he proposed a specific definition for the term "competency" in order to distinguish it from the other terms --

"behaviour" and "variable" -- with which, he claimed, it was frequently used interchangeably (1979:77). He viewed the three concepts as being progressively more specific, "variables being derived from behaviors and competencies being derived from variables -- with competencies defined in terms of proficiency levels validated against pupil outcomes" (1979:77).

The competency implications drawn by Borich from his findings are instructive and pertinent as possible indicators of adequacy of training in teachers. In terms of classroom management and control, for example, Borich translated the Brophy-Evertson (1974) findings in this area into competency statements such as:

> Teacher should have the ability to keep pupils actively engaged, . . . to establish flexible rules sufficient to keep order, and change them when necessary, . . . use mild, non-physical forms of punishment (1979:81).

The competency implications of Good-Grouws' (1975) results on the same dimensions were described in this way:

> Teacher should be able to reduce classroom tension and anxiety . . . engender relaxed, non-evaluative classroom atmosphere, . . . maintain classroom free of major behavioral disorders (1979:82).

Borich observed (1979:85) that this translation of process-product correlations into natural language offered to the practitioner an opportunity to judge for himself the practical meaning of such results, and to recognize that sometimes findings that reached statistical significance might have little apparent practical value, while those which failed to reach statistical significance might be perceived as having considerable practical value. Consciousness of these facts would seem to be particularly important in the context of teacher education where attention is focused upon developing in prospective teachers those attributes which are most likely to have value in the real situation of the classroom.

Once desirable teacher behaviours have been defined, the next step of relevance to teacher education is the confirmation that these can be developed through a program of training. The purposes of the research project "Quest" carried out at the University of Alberta included just this consideration. That study was undertaken in the conviction that, while after a long tradition of research in teaching a number of tentative hypotheses had emerged, it was timely that variables be manipulated experimentally so as to establish cause and effect relationships (MacKay, 1979:2). The study had the additional aim of trying to discover whether teachers' use of recommended strategies would increase after specific training. These two purposes were summed up in the research hypotheses proposed (MacKay, 1979:3):

> 1. The greater the observed strength or frequency of occurrence of a recommended teaching strategy, the greater will be pupil achievement.
>
> 2. The observed strength or frequency of occurrence of a recommended teaching strategy will be greater after the in-service treatment than before the treatment.

The potential implications and importance of findings from such a study were significant. If it were verified that pupil achievement (as reflected in performance in core areas of the curriculum) could be enhanced by the teacher's use of certain specific strategies, the development of such strategies would provide a tangible and worthwhile objective for teacher education programs. Further, if it were demonstrated that the use of such strategies could in fact be made to increase through training, this would validate the adoption of such an objective.

Strategies incorporated in the study were derived from the research literature on teaching, and validated by a panel of practitioners. The twenty-eight selected fell into four main categories: (1) classroom management and control, (2) organizational and methodological strategies, (3) verbal interaction strategies, and (4) interpersonal interaction strategies (MacKay, 1979:8). The findings of Project "Quest" confirmed both research hypotheses. Overall results suggested, first, that a significant relationship existed between student achievement and twenty-one out of the twenty-eight strategies studied (MacKay, 1979:35). Secondly, a significant increase was observed in teachers' use, after treatment, of twenty-four out of the twenty-eight strategies (MacKay, 1979:22). MacKay pointed out that there were at least two implications for teacher educators: the strategies dealt with were relevant and important, and they could therefore serve as a valid base for teacher training activities (1979:37).

In two other studies carried out at the University of Alberta attempts were made to apply these findings to the teacher education context. Ratsoy (1980) reported the results of an evaluation of the effect of the practicum upon the use by student teachers of the kinds of teaching strategies studied in Project "Quest". Significant increases were observed in the use of about half of the behaviours researched. Ratsoy (1980:10) noted that, given the length of time available in the type of practicum studied -- i.e., about eight weeks -- only certain of the skills appeared to be amenable to development. There seemed to be little change in student teachers' use of curricular, ecological or evaluative skills.

A further study of the effects of the practicum upon student teachers' use of teaching strategies was conducted in 1979-80 and reported by MacKay (1980). In eleven out of the twenty-seven strategies studied, there was a statistically significant positive change in the extent to which student teachers were observed to use a particular strategy. Behaviours related to classroom discipline, use of questioning techniques, and interactions with students generally did not increase significantly during the period of the practicum. Again it might be inferred from these findings that the time normally available in the course of a practicum is not long enough to permit extensive development of all types of needed strategies. However, the occurrence of positive changes in certain strategies would seem to permit a tentative conclusion that student teachers can be taught to use such skills.

The consistency with which certain types of skills appear in teacher effectiveness research as being associated with pupil achievement seems to confirm their value as indicators of competent teacher performance. The studies discussed to this point, however, have all been carried out in the North American context. It was clearly important to the purposes of the present study to attempt to discover whether the findings encountered were likely to prove equally relevant in a different setting. Medley's (1977) contention that various contextual factors were likely to influence the effects of teacher behaviours seemed to support this concern.

Teacher Effectiveness Research in Developing Countries

Empirical studies or theoretical discussions which refer specifically to effectiveness in teaching in the developing world context are considerably more difficult to find. Those encountered tend to have largely a policy-making orientation, and to deal, for example, with such global concerns as the effects of trained versus untrained teachers on student achievement. Certain studies, nevertheless, offered perspectives which appeared pertinent to the present discussion.

Arora (1978), for instance, undertook a study aimed at identifying and classifying characteristics which distinguished effective and ineffective teachers within the context of Indian secondary schools. She developed a profile of an effective teacher by consulting with a large group of practitioners considered competent to give valid opinions on the subject (1978:27). This profile was used as the basis for an instrument on which principals identified effective and ineffective teachers (1978:35). Characteristics of those individuals so identified were then examined. The profile of an effective teacher arrived at cited the following as indispensable characteristics (1978:31):

> An Effective Teacher must
>
> (1) have accurate knowledge of the subject;
> (2) have ability to bring the subject matter to the level of students' understanding;
> (3) explain topics clearly;
> (4) make clear presentation of the subject matter;
> (5) organise subject matter systematically;
> (6) have self-confidence;
> (7) have ability of expression;
> (8) have skill in stimulation of interest and motivation of students;
> (9) have sense of duty and responsibility;
> (10) have pleasant and distinct voice;
> (11) plan and prepare his lessons; and
> (12) have good health.

The picture presented does not differ greatly from similar ones drawn elsewhere, although in Arora's work the dimensions of teacher behaviour pertaining to good relationships with students appear only under the category of "desirable" characteristics for effective teachers. This, perhaps, reflects the more authoritarian view of the teacher which continues to prevail in many developing countries.

The studies reviewed by Paige (1979) are significant in this regard. These focused upon one specific aspect of teacher behaviour -- the creation of an appropriate classroom learning environment. The importance of this dimension to the question of the impact of school upon Third World children had been indicated by Alexander and Simmons (1975:i). These authors stated that while most research supported the contention that home and background factors exerted powerful influences on the level of students' achievement, it appeared, nevertheless, that "the removal of the student from the home environment into a learning environment at school does have an important impact on his achievement." Paige was concerned to discover whether including learning environment variables in current models used for evaluating and changing educational settings in developing countries might prove useful (1979:212).

He reviewed four studies conducted in a variety of countries. The results of the study carried out in Brazil by Holsinger (1972, 1973) indicated that classroom climate (defined by items on subscales covering pupil participation, pupil cooperation, class intimacy, group work, teacher interest, egalitarianism, competitive emphasis and disorganization) was a powerful predictor of both classroom and individual modernity, i.e., achievement motivation (1979:214). Further, "school environment was a much better predictor of both modernity and information than the pupil's background" (1979:214). The classroom learning environment was "a powerful predictor of both cognitive and noncognitive learning both inside and outside the classroom" (Paige, 1979:215).

Persaud (1976) extended that line of research in a project conducted on elementary school children in Jamaica (Paige, 1979:215). The study was designed to examine the effects of classroom and school climates on such non-cognitive outcomes as social development (i.e., students' level of interpersonal trust, tolerance, self-esteem and personal efficacy) and aspiration levels (aspirations and educational and occupational expectations). Persaud discovered, as had been found in similar studies conducted elsewhere, that an "open" school authority pattern predicted a greater amount of the variance in social development than did other sets of independent variables (Paige, 1979:215). Implications for teacher behaviour were pointed out by Persaud, who observed that many teachers in developing countries tended to believe in the necessity and desirability of strict discipline as a means of promoting students' academic and social development. In the light of the findings of this study, however, he recommended that principals and teachers should consider developing more open school and classroom environments (Paige, 1979:216).

The findings of the work carried out by Walberg and his associates in India (1974, 1977) confirmed this need for classes to optimize those social relations which were associated with higher rates of cognitive and non-cognitive learning (Paige, 1979:218).

Paige's own research in Indonesia (1978) was designed to accomplish several purposes among which were the following: the assessment of the relationship between the learning environment and cognitive and non-cognitive learning outcomes; the estimation of the relative effects of the learning environment variables in the context of a model that included determinants of learning located inside and outside the school;

and the identification of school and classroom-related factors that acted as modernizing influences (1979:218-219). Paige discovered that classes higher in order and organization had students lower in modernity and, to a lesser degree, lower in achievement -- a finding which suggested that excessive discipline might discourage learning. However, the modest positive relationship of teacher control to modernity implied that a balanced structuring of the classroom environment could be beneficial (1979:221). In relation to other determinants of learning, classroom environment variables proved significant in predicting achievement and modernity (1979:221-222).

Paige concluded that the studies reviewed confirmed what was a consistent finding in similar investigations elsewhere: that the classroom environment was a critical mediating factor in pupils' response to educational experiences, and that teachers should actively pursue the creation of such favourable environments.

In the exploratory review of Third World teacher effectiveness research undertaken by Avalos (1980), the purpose was "to collect information that might be useful to guide decisions of policy-makers regarding teachers, these being one of the most costly and important items in national budgets" (1980:45). Avalos dealt primarily with two specific dimensions of the findings of the research: the effects of teacher training and the use of discovery learning strategies (1980:46). The teacher training research focused more upon identifying differences in classroom behaviour between trained and untrained teachers, and the impact of types and levels of training and qualifications upon student achievement, than on discovering particular strategies that seemed to be associated with pupil growth (1980:46). However, the studies concerned with the search for effective teacher strategies did appear to yield one consistently positive result. This was that "when higher levels of cognitive skills were considered -- i.e., comprehension, application of knowledge, divergent thinking, problem solving -- discovery-oriented methods proved more effective" (1980:49).

The implications of Avalos' remarks are clear: training programs in such settings should provide teachers with the skills to employ methods which would encourage students to participate more actively in their own learning experiences. This is particularly important since, in many developing world contexts, there is still fairly widespread use of highly directive teaching approaches, and emphasis upon rote learning.

In summary, the evidence which emerges from the now fairly extensive research concerning effectiveness in teaching suggests that a variety of criteria might be assembled for the purpose of assessing the adequacy of programs of teacher preparation. These would include dimensions of teacher behaviour which appear to be consistently related to pupil growth in academic or social development.

In the planning of an investigation of an evaluative nature, however, an additional important consideration is the selection or development of a suitable model to guide the collection of relevant data (Ratsoy, 1979:1). An examination of guidelines suggested by various theorists in the field of program evaluation appeared, therefore, to be an appropriate undertaking.

PROGRAM EVALUATION

Conceptual models for the evaluation of educational programs

abound in the relevant literature. In the study of these various conceptualizations, however, the advice given by Worthen and Sanders (1973:41) is pertinent. These authors suggested that models proposed by individual theorists should not be considered as "cookbook recipes for evaluation." Rather, they advised that

> the would-be evaluator be eclectic, whenever possible, in selecting useful concepts from each . . . and combining them into an evaluation plan that is better for having incorporated the best features of several approaches (1973:41).

A discussion follows, therefore, of certain issues raised by different authors and deemed relevant in the context of the present study.

Definitions of "Evaluation"

The term "evaluation" is susceptible of a variety of interpretations, so an important first task seemed to be to clarify the main elements inherent in its meaning.

Cronbach (1973:44) defined "evaluation" as "the collecting and use of information to make decisions about an educational program." Stufflebeam (1971:xxv) described it as "the process of delineating, obtaining and providing information for judging decision alternatives." In Scriven's view (1973:61), evaluation was an activity designed to answer questions about the worth of educational "instruments" (processes, personnel, procedures, programs or the like). Dressel, for his part, stressed that "an evaluation is both a judgment on the worth or impact of a program, procedure or individual, and the process whereby that judgment is made" (1976:1).

Three essential elements appear to emerge from these interpretations, which typify most of the definitions proposed. The elements have implications for the planning of an evaluation study.

1. The purpose of evaluation in education is to judge the worth of educational undertakings. In the instance of programs of professional training, this worth would presumably be judged by the program's effectiveness in producing the desired levels of professional performance in those who had undergone it.

2. This judgment provides a basis for administrative decision making. It is essential, therefore, to give consideration to the type and scope of decisions to be taken before the determination is made concerning the kind of evaluative information to be sought.

3. Evaluation is also the process of collecting the data by which the worth of the undertaking will be judged. Guidelines for this process must consequently be carefully established.

These three considerations provided useful focal points for the development of a plan to guide the conduct of the present study.

Program Effectiveness

In the determination of the effectivenes or impact of a particular program, certain issues raised by evaluation theorists must be taken into account. Cronbach, for example, stressed that program outcomes were likely to be multi-dimensional, and that these various effects should be gauged and taken into account when judgment was made concerning the overall worth of the program (1973:47). Further, he emphasized that a significant function of evaluation was to contribute to program revision by pinpointing specific areas of strength and weakness. In this connection

?

it was important to understand how the program produced its effects and what parameters influenced its effectiveness (1973:48). A conceptualization of a complex program as a series of interlocking parts, each designed to produce certain outcomes would seem to be a fruitful means of encouraging this.

Comparison was not, in Cronbach's opinion, a necessary or even desirable dimension of evaluation. He advocated judgment of courses (or, presumably, programs) according to carefully defined standards of worth (1973:49), maintaining that a formal study should be designed primarily to determine the post-course performance of a well-described group, with respect to many important objectives and side effects.

Scriven (1973:66) pointed out that an important aspect of the evaluator's role was his responsibility to formulate criteria by which the activity being evaluated might be judged. In this regard, he cautioned against an approach which would focus solely upon the degree to which an enterprise appeared to have achieved its stated goals. An equally vital part of an evaluation, in his view, was a determination of the value of the goals pursued (1973:73).

Scriven stressed strongly the importance of this judgmental dimension in all evaluative activity, affirming that, whether the evaluation was intended to contribute to the ongoing improvement of a program (its "formative" role), or to contribute to decisions concerning the adoption of an entire finished curriculum (its "summative" role), its goal was always the same: to estimate the worth or value of the undertaking (1973:63). In terms of the evaluation of teacher education programs, this process would seem to entail the scrutiny of the scope and perceived professional and social value of the purposes the programs sought to fulfil, as well as the assessment of their success in achieving those purposes.

The model proposed by Robert Stake reflected the conviction that both description and judgment were essential in evaluation (1973:109). If the effects of a program were to be understood, all contributing elements, he seemed to be suggesting, would have to be known. Stake's model outlined several dimensions along which an educational undertaking might be both described and judged: antecedents (i.e., conditions existing prior to the program); transactions (the processes involved in the delivery of the program); and outcomes (the impact of the program upon relevant groups of individuals involved) (1973:112). Judgment might be carried out according to absolute or relative standards or both, with the emphasis adopted depending largely upon the role the evaluation was to play (1973:123-4).

Evaluation for Decision Making

While Stake's model suggests many useful concepts, its very eclecticism may prove to be a drawback in the planning of a study which seeks to contribute to specific administrative decisions. MacKay and Maguire (1971:12) commented on both the strengths and weaknesses of the Stake approach:

> On the one hand because of the broad base laid for data collection, possible relationships stand less chance of being missed than they do in models which use a theoretical framework for determining which data to collect. . . . On the other hand because of its scope and the finite resources of evaluations, important relationships may not be investigated as thoroughly.

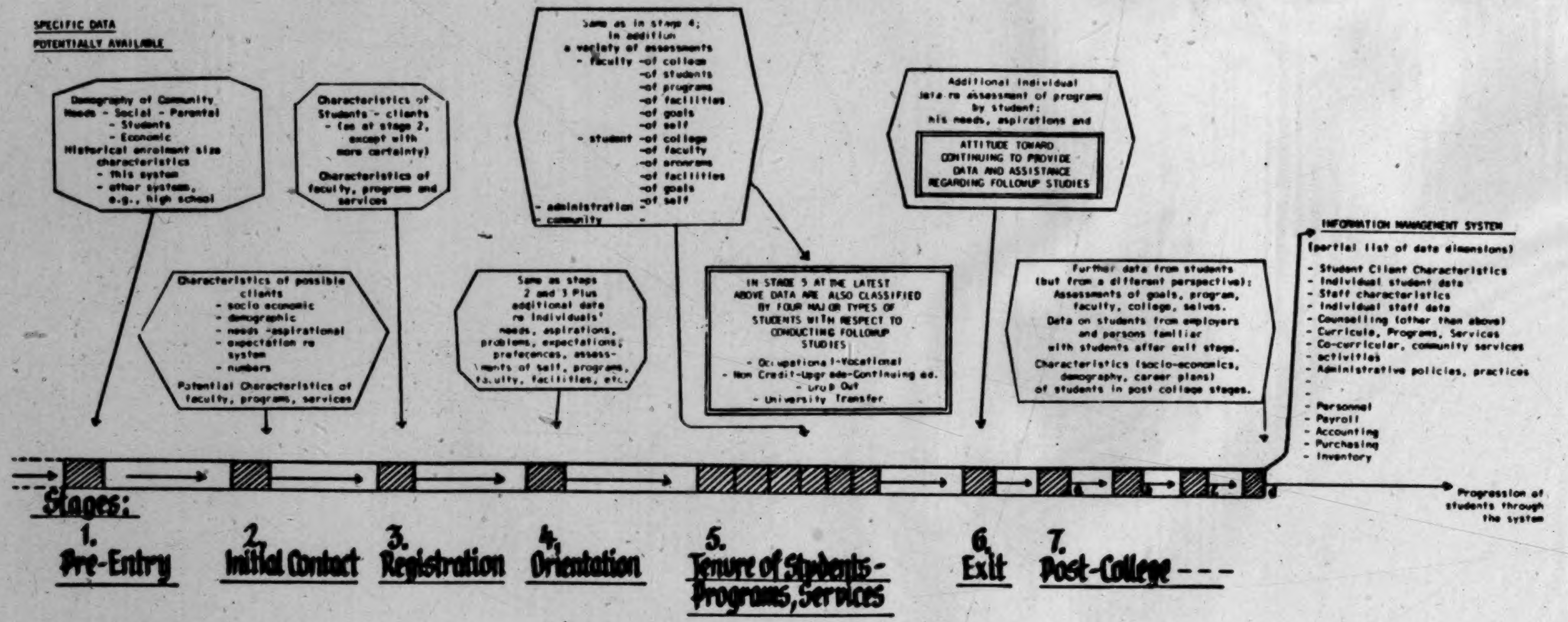
In this regard, the more systematic approach embodied in the work of Stufflebeam (1971) defined closely the types of evaluative activities necessary to be undertaken in the service of different types of decisions. In the Stufflebeam Context, Input, Process and Product model, concern to assess overall program effectiveness would most appropriately focus upon "product" or outcome evaluation, for the information thus obtained would relate to all other dimensions of the program (context, inputs and processes), and contribute to "recycling decisions" -- i.e., decisions regarding the continuation, termination, modifcation or refocusing of the activity (1973:138).

Stufflebeam's concept of evaluation as a cyclical process constantly feeding information back to the organization, was supported by Dressel (1976:7) who asserted that "programs are generally in flux so that continuous and systematic evaluation is essential to provide the basis for improvement." Dressel (1976:8-9) summarized what, in his view, were the fundamental components of evaluation. This summary succinctly defined guidelines for planning an evaluation study, and was deemed an appropriate base for procedures undertaken in the conduct of the present study, for a significant aspect of the investigation was the provision of insights which might contribute to program renewal. Among the procedures identified by Dressel as being salient in evaluation were the following: the identification and scrutiny of program values; the clarification of program objectives; the definition of criteria by which to judge program success; the collection and analysis of data; the making of broad and detailed judgments concerning the success or failure of programs; the recommendation of appropriate courses of action (1976:8-9).

Methodological Framework

An additional important task, however, was the identification of those sources of data which might provide information most relevant to the purposes of the study. As a teacher education program represents an amalgam of separate though related learning experiences, it seemed essential to determine a means whereby the collective impact of those component parts might be assessed while, at the same time, allowing for specific areas of strength or weakness to be identified. The flow model proposed by Clarke, Konrad, Ottley and Ramer (1973:27) proved of assistance in this regard. These authors conceptualized the flow of students through college as "a sequence of stages at which various types of data can potentially be generated" (1973:25) (Figure 3). They suggested that perhaps the most valuable point at which to seek evaluative data was at Stage 7 -- the post-graduate stage -- for it was from this perspective that information might be gathered to evaluate "the basic purpose of the institution, that is, preparation for post-graduation career" (1973:40).

Ratsoy et al. (1979:2) adapted this model to conceptualize the movement of students through the Faculty of Education at The University of Alberta (Figure 4), and it was this version which suggested the framework for the present study. The teacher education programs and beginning teaching experience in The Bahamas were viewed as a sequence of seven stages, each of which might provide a possible point at which evaluative data might be sought (Figure 5). Each of the first six stages of the sequence represents a significant segment of the programs, which were devised according to the time-honoured premise that the successful teacher requires "(1) general culture . . . (2) special scholarship . . . (3) professional knowledge . . . (4) technical skill . . ." (Russell, cited in Coutts, 1969:2). Responsibility for the


SPECIFIC DATA
POTENTIALLY AVAILABLE
Demography of Community
Needs - Social - Parental
- Students
- Economic
Historical enrolment size
characteristics
- this system
- other systems,
e.g., high school
Characteristics of possible
clients
- socio economic
- demographic
- needs -aspirational
- expectation re
system
- numbers
Potential Characteristics of
faculty, programs, services
Characteristics of
Students - clients
- (as at stage 2,
except with
more certainty)
Characteristics of
faculty, programs and
services
Same as steps
2 and 3 Plus
additional data
re individuals'
needs, aspirations,
problems, expectations;
preferences, assess-
ments of self, programs,
faculty, facilities, etc.
Same as in step 4;
in addition
a variety of assessments
- faculty -of college
-of students
-of programs
-of facilities
-of goals
-of self
- student -of college
-of faculty
-of programs
-of facilities
-of goals
-of self
- administration -
- community -
IN STAGE 5 AT THE LATEST
ABOVE DATA ARE ALSO CLASSIFIED
BY FOUR MAJOR TYPES OF
STUDENTS WITH RESPECT TO
CONDUCTING FOLLOWUP
STUDIES
- Occupational-Vocational
- Non Credit-Upgrade-Continuing ed.
- Drop Out
- University Transfer
Additional individual
data re assessment of programs
by student:
his needs, aspirations and
ATTITUDE TOWARD
CONTINUING TO PROVIDE
DATA AND ASSISTANCE
REGARDING FOLLOWUP STUDIES
Further data from students
(but from a different perspective):
Assessments of goals, program,
faculty, college, selves.
Data on students from employers
and persons familiar
with students after exit stage.
Characteristics (socio-economics,
demography, career plans)
of students in post college stages.
INFORMATION MANAGEMENT SYSTEM
(partial list of data dimensions)
- Student Client Characteristics
- Individual student data
- Staff characteristics
- Individual staff data
- Counselling (other than above)
- Curricula, Programs, Services
- Co-curricular, community services
- activities
- Administrative policies, practices
-
-
- Personnel
- Payroll
- Accounting
- Purchasing
- Inventory
a
b
c
d
Progression of
students through
the system
Stages:
1. Pre-Entry
2. Initial Contact
3. Registration
4. Orientation
5. Tenure of Students-Programs, Services
6. Exit
7. Post-College - - -

EXAMPLES OF ANALYSES OF THE ABOVE DATA APROPOS FOLLOWUP STUDIES

Examination of who are and who are not served in terms of demography and socio-economic characteristics from 3 as compared to 1 and 2; and 7 as compared to 3 and to 1.

Examination of mission and program goals in conjunction with various types of needs and with characteristics of those typically served and not served, i.e., admission policies, etc. not reviewed

Compare types of assessments (such as in 5) with same types as generated at other stages (2,3,4,6,7). Such an overall assessment would less likely be biased by any single perspective.

Assessment of program or course relevance, associated methods, content, instructors, etc. can be done in conjunction with assessments of goals, missions, success of graduates and their "skills" by the community in order that the program assessment be more valid.

Trends in attitudes, needs, aspirations within a single cohort, among cohorts.

Associated trends in program enrolments, instructor mobility, manpower requirements and other community needs.

Associated trends in administrative policies, procedures and in goal translation at the institutional level.

Various cost-benefit studies.

Figure 3

Conceptual Model of Student Flow, Data Generation, Data Management and Data Analyses

Source: Clarke, Neil et al., "A Systems Approach to Follow-Up Studies in Community Colleges." Occasional report published by the Department of Educational Administration, The University of Alberta, February, 1973.

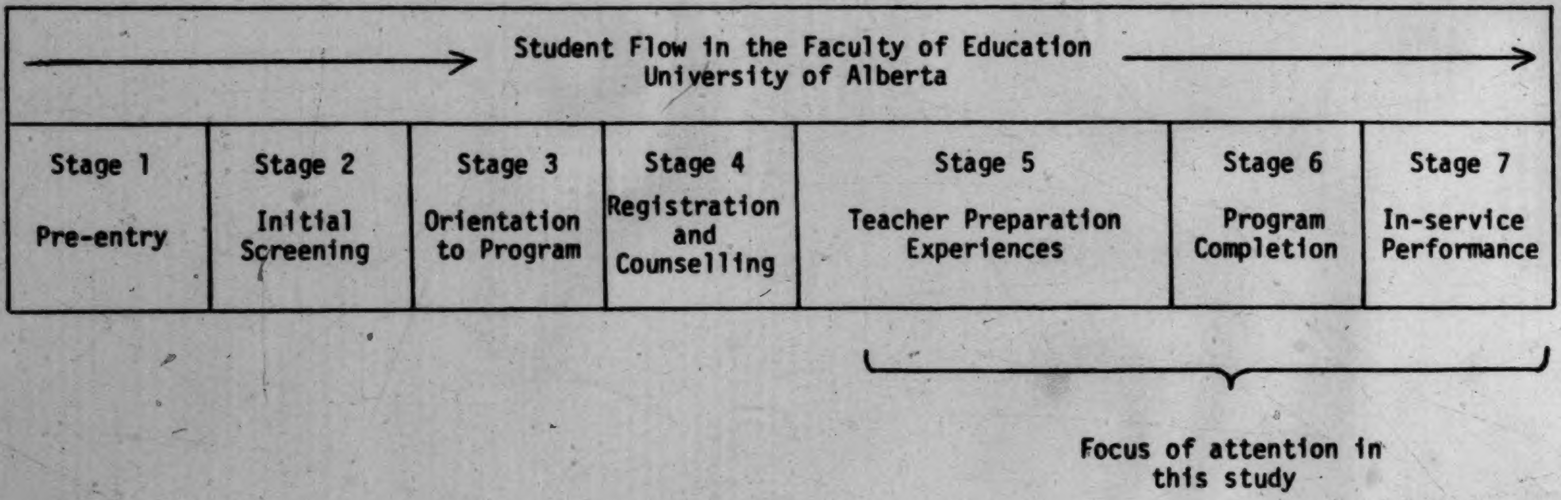

Student Flow in the Faculty of Education
University of Alberta
Stage 1
Pre-entry
Stage 2
Initial Screening
Stage 3
Orientation to Program
Stage 4
Registration and Counselling
Stage 5
Teacher Preparation Experiences
Stage 6
Program Completion
Stage 7
In-service Performance
Focus of attention in this study

Figure 4

Framework for Collection of Information in Program Evaluation, Faculty of Education, University of Alberta

Source: Ratsoy, Eugene W. et al., Skills of Beginning Teachers and Perceived Effectiveness of Preparation Programs. Program Evaluation Report Number 4. Edmonton, Canada: Office of Program Evaluation, Faculty of Education, The University of Alberta, March, 1979.

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4	Stage 5	Stage 6	Stage 7
Selection from High Schools and Untrained Teaching Force	Placement, Registration and Counselling	Academic Courses: General Education and Subject Specializations	Professional Courses	Teaching Practice	Final Examinations, Teaching Practice Moderation, Certification	In-service Teaching
Academic Divisions and Education Division	Student Services, Academic Divisions, Education Division	HMNS NASC SOSC Divisions	EDUC Division	EDUC Division	EDUC Division, Joint Board of Teacher Education, University of the West Indies	Ministry of Education Schools, Private Schools

Figure 5

Components and Typical Sequence of College of The Bahamas Teacher Education Programs and Beginning Teacher Experience

Source: Flow Model based in part on "Framework for Collection of Information in Program Evaluation," Faculty of Education, The University of Alberta, in Eugene W. Ratsoy et al., "Skills of Beginning Teachers and Perceived Effectiveness of Teacher Education Programs," Program Evaluation Report No. 4, Faculty of Education, The University of Alberta, Page 2.

provision of these various components is divided among a number of teaching divisions, and, over a three-year period, a prospective teacher typically moves through a series of courses and other instructional experiences as illustrated in Figure 5. Assessment of the individual's achievement occurs at each stage of the sequence, and there is a comprehensive appraisal of content mastery and of teaching practice accomplishment at the point of exit from the program (Stage 6). These several measures do not, however, yield the kind of information which would appear to be most essential to validate the activities undertaken in the programs, i.e., how successfully graduates from those programs are able to perform in actual school settings. In the present study, therefore, the focus will be upon Stage 7 of the sequence, the in-service experience of the teacher education graduates.

This focus is supported by a variety of writers. In the "Recommended Standards for Teacher Education" published by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (1971:12), it was asserted that the ultimate criterion for judging the effectiveness of a teacher education program was whether it produced competent graduates who entered the profession and performed effectively. Clarke (1971:141) quoted Medley's claim that "when we wish to evaluate a program, then, we must confront the question of how effective are its graduates in the classroom." Beaty (1969:298) declared that a teacher education program might be considered adequate if there appeared to exist a visible relationship between the program and the actual job of teaching. Similarly, Rosser and Denton maintained that recent graduates from teacher education programs were able to provide useful information concerning the adequacy of their preparation. "With 'real world' experience," these authors claimed, "the graduate is in a more tenable position to critically assess the value of program objectives and the effectiveness of his recent pedagogical preparation" (1977:97).

Borich (1979:7) affirmed that the assumption that teachers could best judge their own performance and, when explicitly asked to do so, make an objective judgment, was most tenable when the purpose of the data collection was the evaluation of training and not the evaluation of the individual teacher. It was hoped, therefore, that examining the effectiveness of the programs in question from the perspective of those whose professional performance might be considered their "products" or "outcomes" would prove an efficient means of incorporating and focusing the considerations identified as significant in the foregoing review.

SUMMARY

In this chapter, the theoretical perspectives and empirical research which provided the conceptual bases for the conduct of the present study were discussed. The discussion focused upon the following issues considered relevant to the question of effectiveness in teacher education: the purposes of teacher education; the purposes and functions of the schools and the roles and functions of teachers within these; and the concept of effectiveness in teaching. Further, as a means of developing guidelines for the collection of appropriate evaluative data, a number of salient issues addressed by evaluation theorists were also reviewed.

It was established that the purposes of specific programs geared to the preparation of teachers were closely related to the needs of the schools, which required practitioners who were able to perform competently the tasks associated with the schools' functions in society. An important dimension of the work of the schools was seen to be the promotion of academic achievement among students, for this credentialling function was one which was highly valued by society. Teachers' competence, therefore, would be measured in part by their ability to participate effectively in the pursuit of this objective.

Another significant role of the school, was, however, the socialization of young people into the values, attitudes and levels of personal development which would enable them to function productively in adult life. It was noted that this function was of special importance in new nations, where formal education was conceived of as a major socializing agent, whose responsibility was not only to promote values, skills and attitudes which might contribute to national development, but also to convey a sense of pride in and respect for traditional wisdom and culture.

It was further recognized that teachers functioned within organizational settings whose demands were likely to change over time. The teacher, therefore, would have to be prepared to respond flexibly to such changes.

The search for criteria by which effective discharge of teaching functions might be gauged involved an examination of various approaches to the concept of effectiveness in teaching. It was discovered that the earlier approaches to the question had concentrated primarily on trying to define characteristics which seemed to distinguish effective from ineffective teachers. These efforts were generally perceived as being inconclusive, at best, and later research focused upon what appeared to be a more promising dimension -- the effects of specific types of teacher behaviour on the achievement of students.

Evidence accumulated from this form of research seemed to confirm that there were, indeed, certain strategies which would enhance student learning, and which, importantly, as was demonstrated in the University of Alberta's Project "Quest", teachers could be trained to use. A note of caution was sounded in the comprehensive review of research reported by Medley: it appeared that certain contextual factors such as socio-economic background of students, grade level and type of subject matter studied, might have a mediating influence upon the effectiveness of such strategies.

In the light of Medley's suggestion, it was considered appropriate in the present study to report empirical research carried out in developing countries, in order to discover whether the types of behaviours identified as being effective in the context of North America would also be found to be effective in those settings. Such evidence as could be found seemed to support the findings encountered elsewhere. It was judged legitimate, therefore, to use dimensions of teacher behaviour which appeared to be associated with student growth as criteria by which to assess the effectiveness of the teacher programs in this study.

The final section of the chapter addressed the question of establishing an appropriate framework to guide the collection of evaluative data. A number of issues raised by evaluation theorists were considered and various models examined. The flow model designed by Clarke, Konrad, Ottley and Ramer, and later adapted by Ratsoy et al. for the evaluation of teacher education programs at the University of Alberta, was judged a suitable one for use in the present investigation. The model enables teacher education programs and the beginning in-service experience of teachers to be conceptualized as a series of distinct, yet related stages, at each of which evaluative information might be sought. The decision was made to focus upon the final stage of the model -- the in-service experience of graduates. This focus seemed to hold promise for eliciting useful information relative to the overall effectiveness of the programs and to the perceived strengths and weaknesses of other stages of the sequence.

CHAPTER 3

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In Chapter 1, it was established that the major purpose of the present study was to discover the extent to which programs of teacher education in The Bahamas were perceived as being effective in providing teachers with the attributes necessary for successful teaching performance. Issues pertinent to the question of effective teacher preparation were discussed in Chapter 2, as a means of establishing the conceptual framework which guided the conduct of this study. Further, considerations relevant to the issue of program evaluation were examined and the model selected to guide the collection of data was described.

The literature reviewed in the present chapter deals essentially with two perspectives of the problem. First, consideration is given to the types of criticisms which have been levelled against prevailing teacher education practices, and to the problems which have been identified as being typically associated with the enterprise. Secondly, an examination is made of a number of empirical studies which deal with the evaluation of teacher education programs. The findings of these studies are discussed in the light of strengths and weaknesses described, and with regard to significant mediating factors identified.

CRITICISMS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Over the past few decades, critics of teacher education have not been lacking either outside of the profession or within it. The tide of unrest which swept through education systems in much of the western world, but particularly in North America, focused the attention of a bewildered public upon the schools and on those responsible for running them. The concern generated has not abated. In new nations, also, where lofty expectations have been held concerning the ability of formal education to contribute mightily to rapid social and economic development, there has arisen a growing sense of disenchantment and disillusionment as anticipated changes have not materialized.

The persistence of this apparent failure of teachers to be able to meet successfully the challenges of their jobs prompted a more probing look at the kind of preparation they were receiving. Many such investigations were carried out by individuals outside the teacher education profession itself.

Criticisms from Outside Teacher Education

Conant's (1963) study of the education of teachers was undertaken to determine the nature and quality of the professional preparation being offered to prospective teachers in institutions throughout the United States. In addition, he scrutinized certification policies which governed the selection and employment of teachers, and which had significant implications for the conduct of teacher education. Conant's findings were not encouraging. The overall quality of teacher preparation appeared to be less than optimal, and Conant maintained that certification requirements, which relied heavily upon the accumulation of courses and credits, were misguided. In his view, they did not serve the purposes of those concerned with quality teaching, since there was no conclusive evidence that any specific course improved teaching ability (1963:54).

Conant identified a number of weaknesses prevalent in the teacher education programs he studied -- weaknesses which were not confined to any one area of the programs. He stated (1963:13) that he had found "much to criticize on both sides of the fence that separates faculties of education from those of arts and sciences." Both dimensions of the teacher education process -- academic education and professional training -- seemed, in Conant's judgment, to lack a sound conceptual base. He found, for example, no agreement concerning what should constitute a satisfactory general education program for future teachers (1963:209). Further, though there appeared to be a greater degree of unanimity with respect to the needs of specialized areas of study, opinions differed concerning the amount of time such studies should occupy, and the level of competence to be reached in them (1963:209). As for the rationale underlying the content of specific education courses, Conant observed that he was only able to arrive at one conclusion:

> Professors of education have not yet discovered or agreed upon a common body of knowledge that they all feel should be held by school teachers before the student takes his first full-time job (1963:141).

The quality of instruction observable in the courses offered was also condemned by Conant. He found that in academic courses material was presented in "dreary discussions", and that much undergraduate teaching was done, not by experienced professors, but by graduate students who were used as teaching assistants. There was widespread dependence on anthologies and textbooks, and lectures were "poorly delivered by uninspired teachers" (1963:78).

Education courses were not more leniently judged. Conant asserted that the kindest word used by students to describe their introductory courses in education was "pathetic". This type of course consisted of "scraps of history, philosophy, political theory, sociology, and pedagogical ideology," presented by professors who had little mastery in any one of the disciplines, much less sufficient competence in all to allow for anything more than the most superficial treatment of the topics included (1963:127). As for the general methods courses, Conant found that they often duplicated work already covered in psychology courses, and consequently appeared to be redundant and unnecessary. In Conant's view, techniques and instructional material were best presented "in the context of special methods instruction, which accompanies and is closely related to the actual practice teaching situation" (1963:138).

Even this practice-teaching component of the training, whose importance represented one of the few points about which there was consensus, was, in Conant's opinion fraught with flaws. He described the conditions under which this essential practice was carried out as "slipshod" and "sometimes chaotic" (1963:61).

Conant's findings exposed many fundamental weaknesses in the practices of teacher education which were confirmed time and again by other researchers.

Koerner, for example, concurred with Conant's criticism that there existed little rational basis for the way in which teachers were prepared. From the results of his extensive study of teacher education in American colleges and universities, he contended that there was "an appalling lack of evidence" which could be summoned to support the wisdom of adopting any particular kind of professional training for teachers (1965:16). His blistering attack on the "miseducation" of American teachers stressed particularly the lack of congruence between the actual performance of graduates of a training program and the preparation through which they had been put (1965:16).

Koerner's attack was wide-ranging: he criticized the intellectual quality of both faculty and students in Education, and dismissed Education courses as "puerile, repetitious, dull and ambiguous . . ." (1965:18). The academic components of the program fared little better: Koerner condemned the instructors of arts and science courses as being inept, and criticized the sequencing of academic courses, which, he felt ignored the special needs of prospective teachers (1965:20). Special venom was saved for the phenomenon which Koerner described as the "abandonment of the English language and the creation in its place of a pernicious patois that can most charitably be called Educanto" (1965:20). Most of all, however, Koerner deplored the lack of relevance to the actual job of teaching of the professional courses in the preparation programs. They were not, in his view, constructed around "programs of proven worth." Such rationale as did exist for them consisted in "certain broad assumptions, the grounds for which are indeterminate" (1965:50).

Silberman (1970:439) confirmed this view, asserting that

> certification requirements have saved educationists from the necessity of having to justify -- or even think about -- their programs. Certainly, few of them have asked themselves why they are doing what they are doing, or how it affects the kind of students they turn out.

This weakness pervaded both the liberal arts and professional portions of the programs, according to Silberman. Instructors in academic subjects adopted protective attitudes towards individual courses, with little evident thought about the purposes or consequences of them, and even less about the purposes and consequences of the curriculum as a whole (1970:390). Silberman described methods courses as "the wasteland of teacher education" (1970:443), maintaining that they tended to be "both intellectually barren and professionally useless." Moreover, the professors teaching the courses rarely practised what they preached: they delivered long, dry lectures on the importance of not lecturing. "Indeed," Silberman asserted (1970:443), "there can be no greater demonstration of the irrelevance of most methods courses than the ways the methods professors teach."

Even practice teaching, usually cited as being the most useful part of professional education, allowed little room for complacency (1970:451). Indeed, by confirming bad teaching habits rather than good ones, it might on occasion do more harm than good. Silberman identified several causes for the situation (1970:451), a significant one of which was the fact that students received little systematic feedback about their performance, for supervision tended to be "sporadic and perfunctory." The most fundamental problem, though, was the one which pervaded teacher education as a whole: there was no evidence that either cooperating teachers, supervisors or student teachers held any real conception of education from which teaching performance might be evaluated. The result was, therefore, that supervisors frequently disagreed among themselves about what constituted good or bad teaching, and even, Silberman claimed, "individual supervisors frequently are unable to agree even with themselves, applying different criteria to different students, or to the same student on different days" (1970:454).

However, the "weakest link in the chain of practice teaching," as Silberman saw it, was the public school teacher in whose classroom the student teacher did his practice teaching (1970:458). This individual, who frequently was most influential in shaping the young teacher's development, did not always represent a good model of teaching to be followed. Further, the student teaching experience did not really afford prospective teachers a sense of what real teaching was like: they were seldom given either sufficient authority or responsibility. Nor was the situation a properly synthetic one in which experiences could be appropriately controlled and ordered (1970:460-461).

Summary. A dominant underlying theme seems to run through the criticisms of all these investigators. They perceived that the lack of an appropriate conceptualization of the purposes of teacher education resulted in practices which frequently failed to address adequately the personal or professional needs of teachers. There appeared to be a proliferation of courses whose value to the improvement of teacher competence remained unproven. Instruction provided in teacher education institutions was often of poor quality, and did little to model the kinds of approaches student teachers were encouraged to use in their own teaching. Even the practical experiences provided for prospective teachers were marred by a lack of adequate and informed supervision.

These views were not unique to critics outside the profession; they were also propounded by teacher educators themselves.

Criticisms from Within Teacher Education

The literature reveals that many of those involved in the actual business of preparing teachers recognized clearly the shortcomings of their efforts. In addition, they possessed insights into the kinds of internal and external pressures which put obstacles in the way of substantial improvement. A number of these perspectives are considered in the paragraphs which follow.

The lack of congruence between what was dealt with in teacher education programs and what was demanded of the teacher in actual school situations was early identified by Sarason and his associates (1962:vii) who asserted that "the contents and procedures of teacher education frequently have no demonstrable relevance to the actual teaching task." There were, these authors claimed, many tasks that teachers had to perform for which they received no preparation (1962:3). They cited particularly the fact that teachers were inadequately and inappropriately trained to deal with the individual needs of children in a classroom, since their own exposure to the concept was as a passive learner and listener in a typical college or university course (1962:34). Even their practice teaching experience did not supply the needed skills of observation and recognition of individual differences, for the supervision accorded student teachers tended to focus more upon the

> technical or engineering aspects of teaching . . . than on such matters as the arousal of curiosity, eliciting the contribution of students' ideas, and the recognition of individual differences among children in terms of how this must influence the techniques of teaching (Sarason et al., 1962:8)

Later, Sarason (1978-79:3) noted further than student teaching did little to bridge the gap between teacher education and the school, for "students came away from practice teaching almost as ignorant or naive about the culture and organization of the school as they were when they began." They spent most of their time in one classroom with one teacher, insulated from many of the "social realities" which would so crucially affect the nature, scope and effectiveness of their work when they entered the organization as fully-fledged practitioners (1978-79:3).

Smith et al. (1969:24) also deplored the failure of programs of teacher education to provide prospective teachers with an understanding of the "network of activities" which would encompass their professional functions. Such programs, they claimed, equipped the prospective teacher to perform very few specific tasks, and to understand only superficially the situations in which he would find himself as a teacher (1969:24).

Smith and his associates were particularly concerned with the teacher's ability to cope with the challenges of education in a complex and rapidly changing society and to meet the needs of the disadvantaged. They saw teacher preparation as failing to give teachers the skills, sensitivity and understanding necessary to recognize the ways in which children's social backgrounds affected their performance in the classroom, and to deal effectively with associated problems (1969:28-29).

Macdonald (1970) was also concerned about the apparent irrelevance of teacher education to the realities of the school. He stressed the enormous influence wielded by the "operational doctrine" of the educational system in reducing the likelihood that procedures recommended in teacher education programs would be able to have any lasting effect in the actual teaching situation. This was so, he claimed, because much of what was taught in teacher education lacked functional value for students (1970:3). The ideas guiding teacher education programs, he maintained, were not evidence, but "an untidy melange of traditions, the untrustworthy anecdotes of experience and insights which, however brilliant, are unlikely to survive institutionalization" (1970:1). He therefore called for a thorough analysis of the teaching task to serve as a rational basis for the practices of teacher education.

Ryan (1970:177), too, emphasized the discrepancy between teacher education and actual practice, charging that those responsible for the education of teachers were more concerned with what could or should be rather than with what was. Many of the unpleasant, trivial and frustrating aspects of teaching were never mentioned in textbooks or courses (1970:175-176). Discipline, for example, -- the lack of which drained the energies of a new teacher more than anything else -- was seldom adequately dealt with in teacher training, in Ryan's opinion (1970:177). This failure was serious because "discipline has little to do with teaching per se, except that it is a necessary condition for teaching to take place" (1970:178).

Ryan further stressed the point which had been made by Sarason et al. (1962), that students were prepared for the active role of teacher by being treated as passive agents (1970:187). Ryan contended that

> To learn the dynamic role of teacher, the prospective teacher should have many opportunities to study and practice the skills and strategies of teaching, and he should have real encounters with . . . students. If progress is to be made here, universities and schools will have to develop new relationships. Right now the universities act as distant producers of teachers, and public schools act as uncritical customers (1970:187).

The relationship normally existing between these essential partners in the teacher preparation enterprise was characterized by Clark and Marker (1975:54) as "loose" and, in some cases, "antagonistic." These authors analyzed the problems of teacher education from an institutional point of view, out of the conviction that organizational factors played a vital part in determining the nature and quality of the preparation teachers received. They saw as a critical difficulty, for instance, the fact that, in multi-purpose institutions, programs of teacher education, which were field and practice oriented, were simply fitted into the overall scheme of undergraduate offerings, being funded and taught in the same manner as other, purely academic courses of study (1975:57). As a result, students were taught to teach by being told how to teach -- a situation unlikely to produced the desired results. Moreover, Clark and Marker saw little chance that complementarity of work would be achieved across the units responsible for the different components of teacher education programs, for the arts and science departments (in which student teachers spent the bulk of their time) regarded teacher preparation as peripheral to their primary function (1975:59). Student teachers' academic preparation was often, therefore, sharply divorced from the professional aspects of the program (1970:60).

In their review of the situation pertaining to student teaching, Clark and Marker (1975:62) described the practice as a "low-cost, expedient institutional effort," typified by the unsatisfactory relationships noted above. Two main factors influenced its quality: (1) the "guest-host" relationship existing between the training institution and the school; and (2) the difficulty of finding suitable individuals to supervise students in the field. Because of the lack of any formal responsibility on the part of school systems to participate in the student teaching enterprise, the quality of the experience afforded the student depended upon what Clark and Marker (1975:63) called "a good will interaction between the two agencies." Since the training institution had no formal jurisdiction over the schools, it was unable to control the placements or experiences of its students within them. Further, the role of the classroom teacher within this situation was an ambiguous one: He was under no specific obligation to supervise student teachers, and, if recompensed at all, was paid little for doing so. In all probability, he would have had neither much experience nor training in the supervisory function. Moreover, at the end of the exercise, he was unlikely to have much say in the final evaluation of the student. These conditions did not encourage a high level of commitment to the undertaking.

The picture presented of the college supervisor was equally unpromising. As supervision of student teachers tended to be a low-priority activity for senior faculty, the responsibility was often assigned to graduate students or to junior members of faculty (Clark and Marker, 1975:63). Neither of these groups was likely to have had significant experience in classroom supervision.

All these factors combined to make that most important part of teacher preparation less than the valuable experience it should have been. In Clark and Marker's view, however, the characteristics described reflected a more general phenomenon which typified the whole of teacher education: "the bizarre disjunction between assigned functions, authority and responsibility . . ." (1975:75). Unlike

Koerner, Conant and Silberman, who perceived the institution of teacher education as a "Monolithic Establishment," Clark and Marker saw

> idiosyncratic organizations assigned "a piece of the action" and functioning in a state of accommodation, not to protect mutual interests but rather to avoid irreconcilable conflicts. We see the assignment of responsibility without authority and authority without responsibility; we see political compromises, external to teacher education, controlling the quality of the education of teachers; we see functions following resource allocations, and form determining substance (1975:74).

Significant improvement would require a fundamental restructuring of the institution of teacher education (1975:80).

What impact would programs which emerged out of the conditions described above have on the teacher himself? It was from this perspective that Fuller and Brown (1975) approached their scrutiny of teacher education processes. They were concerned to understand the nature of the "life space" of the beginning teacher, and from their analysis of the process of becoming a teacher, concluded that this process was "stressful, intimate and largely covert." In accomplishing the task, teachers did not feel helped by their preparation (1975:25). Fuller and Brown emphasized that the gulf between student teacher experience and the reality of "teacherhood" in the schools had a profound impact upon the beginning teacher. They summarized the complexities of the factors at work:

> To help her navigate the chasm dividing pupilhood from teacherhood, an inadequate knowledge base is communicated in a low status preparation program. She gets mixed signals about goals and means from her different trainers as well as from her different clients. The same behaviors are both rewarded and punished by different groups to which she is responsible before she has achieved skills and internalized values. Even when the goals are agreed upon, they are lofty and vague. What works may be disapproved. In this demanding, complex, stressful situation, she is relatively powerless (1975:47).

Added to these many difficulties was the fact that little effort was made in the training institution to recognize and accommodate the individual differences existing between student teachers -- although these same students were being encouraged to recognize and cater for the individual needs of their own pupils (1975:48). Assignment to courses, supervisors and the like tended to be uniform and random, without any real attempt to ensure "goodness to fit." These and related considerations militated against significant strides being made to improve the processes of teacher preparation.

Newton's (1975) criticism of teacher education focused primarily upon its apparent isolation from the environment in which it functioned and which it served. In his view, teacher education appeared to be insulated from the many massive and important changes in the societal context to which children were exposed daily. It was, he contended, "trapped and controlled by an academic ghetto" (1975:39). The effect of this influence was that approaches which might help teachers deal more adequately with the uncertainties of the classroom (e.g., training in human relations and communication skills) were unlikely to receive the needed support (1975:40). The dominant concern of the "academic ghetto," Newton contended, was the acquisition of knowledge, with a consequent neglect of other important human and practical dimensions (1975:41).

In the opinion of Robert Barr (1978), teacher education often neglected to take into account the institutional culture of the schools, which might be "inconsistent with many of the goals of preservice education" (1978:80). The result, as had been noted previously by several of the authors cited earlier (Silberman, 1970; Macdonald, 1970;

Ryan, 1970), was that teacher education had little significant impact on the instruction in public schools, for teacher behaviour soon tended to conform to the prevailing norms of the school (1978:80).

Arnstine (1979:51) confirmed this view, but suggested that, in fact, teacher education had not supplied the beginning teacher with much that could be undone by the schools. Particularly, as recipients of "only a sampling of educational theory, and a condensed and often counterproductive apprenticeship," few prospective teachers were afforded an opportunity to explore and understand ways in which they were affected by the groups to which they belonged, and specifically how their behaviour might be influenced when they became a functioning adult member of the school community (1979:51).

Pruitt and Lee (1978) expounded more fully a similar point of view. It was their contention that teacher education programs were "handcuffed in their efforts to effect meaningful change" (1978:69). They thus made little difference to what went on in public schools. Some of these impediments resulted from the experiences and orientations prospective teachers brought to their training, while others emerged from the nature of the training experience itself. Further, planners of teacher education programs were faced with the inescapable dilemma of teacher preparation: whether teachers should be prepared to survive in the school system as it was presently constructed, or to function in an ideal setting. Pruitt and Lee (1978:71) maintained that "the lack of consensus within teacher training institutions and in the public schools serves as a constant impediment to improved teacher preparation."

Several writers looked very specifically at various factors operating within teacher education institutions which influenced profoundly the quality of the preparation these provided. Ellis (1978), pondering problems facing Canadian faculties of education, recalled that in the haste to have programs in place and fully functioning within a short period of time, little opportunity was afforded to newly-formed university faculties of education to think clearly about their practices and whether these were valid (1978:6). Many of the optimistic expectations which had been held for the flourishing of teacher education within the university setting had not, consequently, been fulfilled (1978:7). In Ellis's view, programs of teacher education had taken on the "form without the substance" of university study. The earlier emphasis on pragmatic training had been eliminated, but the courses which replaced it often neither educated nor trained students. Programs lacked shape and focus, and what professors of education taught frequently bore little relationship to actual practice, for many of these individuals had little classroom experience on which to draw. Although research had increased, it had not resulted in improved practice, nor led to sound theory development (1978:7).

Ellis (1978:8-9)proposed that, until the "central purpose" of faculties was clarified through the development of a comprehensive set of priorities (derived through debate, dialogue and argument), it was unlikely that their work would be properly effective.

The value orientations which pervaded the institution of teacher education provided the focus for the criticisms expressed by Rogus and Schuttenberg (1979). These authors maintained that, despite the many changes which had been implemented in teacher education, the experiences undergone by future teachers were insufficient to prepare them to deal with problems with which they would be presented by organizational forces within the school system (1979:39).

Rogus and Schuttenberg held that "students must experience being in a healthy organization to learn appropriate organizational coping" (1979:39). It was their contention that the kinds of norms and values dominant in the college or university environment were internalized by students, and that these might not always be congruent with the professed ideals of teacher preparation. The authors noted, especially, that in the university priority system, the practice of teaching (for which the education students were being prepared) was regarded as being of secondary importance, and was accorded low prestige within the academic community, even within faculties of education. This message was clearly conveyed to prospective teachers (1979:40). A sense of the isolation of the teacher's work, and the lack of an adequate support system, became obvious to students in the college or university setting, and tended to be carried over into the even less protected environment of the school (1979:39). Further, the dearth of active inquiry into their own effectiveness, or for the sake of generating new knowledge, which was usually observable in faculties of education, militated against the probability that an orientation towards inquiry would be manifested by teachers in the course of their own professional practice (1979:39).

Pedersen and Fleming (1979:41) added another voice to the chorus of those who claimed that there was a basic lack of rationality in teacher education programs. Educational decisions were made, they contended, "on the basis of philosophic inclination, folklore, tradition, or any combination thereof" (1979:42). These authors identified conceptual and practical difficulties which bore upon the problem, and questioned the adequacy of the expertise possessed by education faculty for producing teachers who could perform successfully in the field. They also commented upon the inadequacy of flows of information between the training institution and the schools (1979:43). Most importantly, they stressed, "we in education have become so socialized into our existing system that we are no longer capable of asking the right questions or identifying our underlying problems" (1979:43).

Summary. Certain important and recurrent themes run through these varied accounts of the weaknesses existing within teacher education. The first is that which appears to lie at the core of all such concerns: the absence of an adequate conceptual foundation to inform the activities undertaken in the preparation of teachers. As a result, the suitability and quality of both academic and professional components appear often to be questionable. Even student teaching, universally hailed as the most valuable aspect of teacher preparation, reveals many inadequacies which stem from this basic lack.

Secondly, a variety of organizational factors are seen as playing an important part in impeding significant progress toward improved teacher education. Salient among these is the relationship which exists between the major partners in the teacher preparation process: the training institution and the schools. Linkages between these two organizations are often ill-defined, and characterized by insufficient communication, unclear responsibilities and conflicting values.

Failure on the part of teacher educators to take sufficiently into account the powerful influence of the prevailing culture of the schools is another weakness emphasized by a number of writers. This tendency of teacher education to ignore the ethos in which the beginning teacher will be working causes much of the work done in preparation programs to appear irrelevant and to be easily abandoned.

These weaknesses appear to be persistent and perceptible in a variety of contexts within North America. However, as the present study is concerned with teacher education in a developing country, it seemed important to discover whether similar weaknesses were evident in such areas, and whether there appeared to be other problems which were unique to teacher education in the developing world.

Problems of Teacher Education in Developing Countries

The concern over the quality of teacher education in developing countries stemmed, Thompson (1972:228) maintained, from two main sources: "the enormous financial implications of recent educational expansion" and the "mounting disillusion with existing education as a means of bringing about planned change in rapidly evolving societies." Thompson asserted, however, that despite the many discussions of deficiencies in teacher education and suggestions for reforms, little had actually changed. Further, change was unlikely to occur because those involved were neither "entirely convinced of the need for change nor of the continuing validity of traditional procedures" (1972:229).

Little meaningful stocktaking had taken place, in Thompson's view, for the means conventionally used to measure quality in those contexts were admittedly inadequate (1972:230). These measures depended, customarily, on results of final examinations, and assessments of the nature and quantity of the "inputs" (faculty, students and facilities) into the programs. Thompson stressed the fact that many important attributes -- personal qualities, attitudes, motives, and the like -- were not likely to be measured by the kinds of knowledge-oriented examinations given (1972:230). Further, he pointed out that mere scrutiny of the nature and quantity of "inputs" could tell nothing of the effectiveness of the use to which these had been put (1972:231). But the most fundamental reason for the lack of more appropriate measures of quality lay, in Thompson's opinion, in the failure of teacher education to define for itself the goals at which it was aiming (1972:232). In this he echoed the concern so frequently voiced by critics elsewhere.

Turnter (1978), while identifying problems not dissimilar to those encountered in discussions of teacher education in the developed world, pinpointed others which appeared to be more specifically pertinent to developing areas. He drew attention first to certain important characteristics of the educational context which placed special demands upon teacher-preparing institutions in those areas. He highlighted, for example, the enormous diversity which could be observed in the quality of educational provision within a single country of the developing world. Schools might range from the air-conditioned, carpeted, lavishly-equipped structures found in the capital city, to the wooden shacks -- sparsely-furnished, with no glass in the windows and few means of securing what little equipment was available -- which predominated the scene in remoter districts (1978:177). Teachers would, consequently, have to be prepared to function at either end of the scale.

There were, in addition, other important factors to be faced. In many schools, instructional materials were frequently in short supply, or unavailable altogether, so that teachers had to be trained to improvise freely from whatever source materials they might encounter in the communities in which they found themselves (1978:178). Moreover, the teachers with whom beginning teachers would have to work would represent a wide range of ages, experience, and training (or lack of it). Teachers would, therefore, require strong human relations skills in order to develop positive relationships with their colleagues (1978:178).

The colleges in which teachers were trained for this demanding work were likely, themselves, to be small, and to possess limited resources. Libraries were often inadequate, laboratory supplies insufficient and uncertain, and equipment only sporadically maintained (1978:178). These factors, of necessity, placed limitations on the type and range of instruction which could be provided. Furthermore, the pattern of staffing familiar in such institutions also held significant implications for the instructional processes of the programs. Typically, there would be two main types of indigenous staff members: (1) those with limited academic background who had been involved in teacher education for a long time, and who had been recruited into teachers' colleges after years of successful classroom practice; and (2) the younger members of staff, who possessed higher academic credentials, but little actual teaching experience. These were, usually, taken into the teachers' colleges straight after university training abroad. An uneasy mix resulted, for the older instructors were frequently highly sensitive about their lack of formal academic qualifications, while the younger ones were very conscious of their lack of experience and teaching expertise when called upon to guide students (Turner, 1978:179-180).

In confronting the demands and frustrations arising from these various circumstances, teacher education faculty tended to be painfully aware of their own inadequacies as a group to deal with the problems involved. Turner (1978:180) concluded that "the general picture of teacher education in developing societies is one of perlexity, of teacher trainers who are aware of the problems of their task but who find these problems insoluble."

Stewart (1978) articulated many similar concerns, but emphasized that the problems were compounded by the fact that the drive to localize the teaching profession in newly-independent nations had forced training institutions to admit many poorly qualified students and process them at a relatively low level. A critical concern now facing these areas was the need to improve qualitatively the preparation of teachers (1978:192).

Stewart identified three important deficiencies in the performance of teachers in developing nations: (1) they lacked professional skills; (2) they failed to display attitudes of "nurturance" towards their students; and (3) they did not seem to be capable of innovative, divergent thinking (1978:192). However, he recognized that in attempting to develop these desirable qualities in future teachers, teacher educators would have to bear in mind significant features of the educational environment. The more authoritarian teacher role, for example, represented an inevitable reflection of prevailing community values (1978:193). The parent figure which the teacher mirrored was still largely authoritarian in such societies, and Stewart (1978:193) cautioned that

> any suggestion that the teacher's authority, in loco parentis, might be weakened (by, for example, the introduction of more democratic forms of classroom teaching, the promotion of pupil initiative, or the abandoning of corporal punishment) will certainly meet with the opposition of a considerable proportion of the local community.

The promotion of more individualistic, independent attitudes among school children would have to be approached very gradually if a breach were not to be created between the child and his social environment.

Stewart (1978:199) noted, also, a need to look carefully at the question of "standards" in the context of developing nations. It was important, he felt, that educators in those areas should recognize that "educational standards are not universal or absolute, but rather they should be regarded as being relative to a particular purpose, place and time." Stewart (1978:199) went on to quote Tuqan's contention that

> the intellectual excellence to be sought should be dynamic, empirical, and flexible, and oriented towards finding the best intellectual tools for analysing and tackling the problems of a society that needs to be transformed and modernized (Stewart, 199-200).

The role of teacher education in this quest was to produce what Stewart described as "young, confident, indigenous 'facilitators' who have a soundly based academic knowledge, a high level of professional self-esteem, and a high level of social and political awareness" (1978: 200). This demanded a broad reconceptualization of existing teacher education practices.

Summary. This brief review of analyses of problems facing teacher education in developing societies revealed, then, that while many fundamental concerns were universally shared by teacher educators, there appeared to be certain distinctive types of considerations which assumed particular significance in those areas.

Teacher education institutions had to meet the challenge of preparing teachers flexible and adaptable enough to function effectively in widely differing types of schools. The range of approaches which might be adopted for this purpose was frequently determined by the extent of resources available within these institutions, and by the talents and experience possessed by training personnel. Teacher preparation processes had also to be carried out with an awareness of the potential conflicts that might arise between value orientations encouraged within the training institution and those which prevailed in the many traditional communities serviced by the schools.

An assessment of the effectiveness of teacher education programs in such a context would, therefore, involve reference to factors of the types identified, and an evaluation of their influence.

EVALUATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

In order to determine to what extent the criticisms and problems identified appeared to be supported by empirical evidence, an examination was made of studies undertaken to evaluate the effectiveness of teacher education programs in various settings. The examples of such research presented in this section are organized in the following fashion:

1. two comprehensive reviews of evaluative research are considered;

2. individual studies carried out in reference to programs offered by specific institutions are examined;

3. findings from more wide-ranging evaluation studies are reviewed.

Reviews of Evaluative Research in Teacher Education

Early efforts in the evaluation of teacher education tended to be sparse. The period from 1940 to 1951 reviewed by Barr and Singer (1953) yielded only seventy-nine such studies. These studies fell into three main categories: those which focused on consensus of opinion, surveys of practice, and various types of follow-up studies (Barr and Singer, 1953:65). A variety of data-gathering techniques and sources of data were employed. Research tended to be unsystematic and findings conflicting. The authors of the review concluded that, while a beginning had been made, more evaluative research was needed (1953:69). Certain of the findings are, however, of interest, in the light of weaknesses discussed and as a prelude to the results of subsequent research.

Duflot (1940) sought to discover the views of teachers concerning desirable improvements to training. The suggestion most frequently noted was that it should offer more practice and less theory (Barr and Singer, 1953:66). Bishop, (1948, 1949) discovered that a group of teacher education authorities recommended more diversified activities for teachers in inernship programs, so that they might gain experience in planning, preparing materials, and involvement in extra-curricular activities. Bishop also found that the provision of adequate supervision in post-graduate internships was rare (Barr and Singer, 1953:66).

A number of studies referred to the lack of interest among education faculties in the objectives of general education. Also, Barr and Singer (1953:67) reported that many investigations revealed a lack of adequacy in both content and methodology of general education courses. Further, there appeared to be little contact or interaction existing between subject matter instructors and supervisors of student teachers (1953:67).

Although the practical aspects of training were clearly valued, there seemed to be perceptible deficiencies in the existing arrangements. In the study conducted by Adams (1938) for example, the majority of student teachers reported a definite need for greater guidance in applying educational principles to actual learning situations (Barr and Singer, 1953:67). Mooney (1937) identified student teachers as experiencing difficulties in the areas of lesson preparation, leading class discussions, establishing positive pupil relationships and adapting teaching to pupils' needs (Barr and Singer, 1953:67).

Smith (1941) called for an analysis of the teacher's job and a reorientation of training to suit this (Barr and Singer, 1953:68). It was found by Alberty (1949) that the core curriculum received little attention in preservice preparation programs, and that very few institutions prepared teachers to deal adequately with this aspect of teaching (Barr and Singer, 1953:68).

Interesting and conflicting findings emerged from separate studies of the correlation between final student teaching grades and the rating of in-service teaching ability. Tudhope (1942, 1943) reported a correlation of .81 (Barr and Singer, 1953:68). Bach's (1952) study, however, yielded correlations ranging from .27 to .06. This absence of substantial correlation led him to question "whether practice teaching and actual teaching were comparable activities" (Barr and Singer, 1953: 69).

In general, the studies reported in this review indicated the existence of a number of the flaws that were later elaborated upon by concerned critics.

Reynard's review of studies conducted throughout the period from January 1958 to March 1963 indicated the growth of evaluative activity in teacher education. The studies tended, however, to focus primarily upon field experience, measures of teachers' attitudes, and programs for liberal arts graduates. Reynard stated that "little evidence of experimentation with the total program of teacher education was found for the period" (1963:369). He predicted, nevertheless, that "clearly defined criterion measures of the competencies and qualities that are needed to be an effective teacher should hasten the development of the satisfactory planning of programs and their evaluation" (1963:370).

Many of the studies reported by Reynard tended to supply primarily descriptive information about programs. However, two studies conducted in 1962 and 1963 by a subcommittee of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools identified a particularly pervasive weakness in teacher preparation (1963:372-373). The first study suggested that, although many professors expressed their recognition of the importance of human relations in teaching situations, few actually placed any emphasis on this dimension in their courses (Reynard, 1963:373). The results of the later study confirmed this, for teachers considered their college courses to have been of little aid in helping them to deal with problems of interpersonal relationships (1963:373).

Further weaknesses emerged from the results of other investigations. Taylor (1961) discovered that teachers most frequently identified classroom control and student motivation as the most important and persistent problems they faced (Reynard, 1963:374). The degree to which student teachers were influenced by public school supervising teachers was reported by Price (1961), whose findings indicated that students adopted many of the practices of their classroom supervisors, and changed their attitudes in the direction of those held by those supervisors (Reynard, 1963:376). Despite this obviously strong influence wielded by supervising teachers, Hayes (1960) found that little effort had been made at the preservice level to prepare classroom supervisors appropriately for their tasks (Reynard, 1963:377).

While recognizing the value of these varied approaches to the study of teacher education, Reynard concluded that

> satisfactory evidence concerning the strengths and weaknesses of single-purpose and multipurpose institutions for achieving the goals in each of the three aspects of teacher education -- general education, field of specialization, and professional education -- is required to guide changes in organization and program (1963: 378).

Many such institutions recognized this need themselves and undertook comprehensive efforts to assess the impact of their programs.

Institutional Evaluation of Teacher Education

One relatively early study of this type was reported by Troyer and Pace (1944:237-242). They described a study carried out by Isle (1942) at Stanford University to determine the views of graduates and their employers concerning the quality of teacher-training practices at that university. The overall impression from the responses received was that graduates were satisfied with their preparation, and that employers and supervisors were pleased with the performance of Stanford-trained teachers (Troyer and Pace, 1944:241). However, there were certain aspects of the program which were considered to be special strengths. Graduates valued particularly "the individual attention paid the student and the close relationship between the student and the instructor" (Isle, 1942:320). In addition, teachers felt that the program had provided a thorough grounding in subject matter (Troyer and Pace, 1944:241).

Weaknesses in the program were also identified. Interestingly, practice teaching (usually judged to be the most valuable part of teacher preparation) was criticized as not having been sufficiently realistic (1944:241). It was felt that the experience should have lasted longer, should have come earlier in the program, and been done in schools more like the ones in which graduates were likely to work (Troyer and Pace, 1944:242). It was further suggested that students should have been given more opportunity to participate in community life while at university, since subsequent job responsibilities demanded considerable participation in community affairs (1944:242).

Troyer and Pace (1944:242-243) also reported the findings of another, similar study conducted at Teachers College, Columbia. In that study, investigators sought, among other things, to discover teachers' perceptions of the value to them of the special post-graduate program of training they had undergone. Specific comments were requested concerning the component parts of the program (Troyer and Pace, 1944: 243). From the results of the investigation, it was clear that the practical aspects of the program were most highly valued. Troyer and Pace concluded that it was obviously important in teacher education programs to teach in such a way that "the maximum transfer of ideas and information from college theory to classroom practice will be attained"

(1944:243).

Zulauf (1956) undertook an appraisal of selected aspects of an undergraduate preparatory program for secondary school teachers. The major purpose of the study, he stated, was "to identify strengths and weaknesses of this teacher education program and thereby establish a basis for its improvement" (1956:3). A wide range of difficulties was identified by both teachers and principals participating in the study (1956:240). Certain of the problems which both teachers and principals mentioned most frequently as being areas of weakness in the performance of teachers included the following: motivation of pupil interest and response; adapting teaching to the needs, interests and abilities of pupils; pupil control and discipline; and making assignments (1956:241). Teachers also reported that they found difficulty in adjusting to deficiencies in school equipment, physical conditions and materials. Further, they did not always feel in command of their subject matter, or competent in keeping records or making reports. Principals, for their part, reported that beginning teachers frequently encountered problems through lack of poise, self-confidence, emotional stability, reserve and dignity. They did not always display a broad concept of teaching techniques, nor an ability to establish and maintain appropriate relationships with colleagues. Moreover, many beginning teachers seemed, in the judgment of principals, to lack professional zeal and interest (1956:241).

When Zulauf aggregated teachers' perceptions of program strengths, he found that respondents judged student teaching to be of greater value to them than any other part of the program. Despite this, there was not unqualified enthusiasm about the kinds of supervision received during the exercise (1956:250). Three of the suggestions advanced by beginning teachers for the improvement of student teaching were that (1) more time should be provided for actual teaching; (2) student teachers should be given complete responsibility for classes for a longer period of time; and (3) supervising teachers should be instructed concerning what constituted good teaching performance (1956:251).

The views of the ~~Univers~~ity of Montana graduates surveyed by Jay (1968) seemed to affirm these recommendations. Jay discovered that secondary school teachers who had experienced only a six week period of teaching practice were less enthusiastic about the value of the experience than the elementary teachers who had undergone ten weeks of student teaching (1968:24). In Jay's view, this lent credence to the judgment that longer periods of practice teaching offered better preparation for classroom practice (1968:24).

In this study, also, teachers commented on apsects of the program requiring improvement (1968:24). Many recommendations were predictable: teachers saw a need for more practical experience, more training in the area of discipline, additional preparation in subject matter other than major fields. This last recommendation tended to be linked with a significant occurrence identified by Jay: he found that a large proportion of secondary school teachers were teaching outside of their major fields (1968:24). Clearly, such a circumstance had a considerable mediating influence on teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of their programs, and seriously affected their satisfaction with the job of teaching.

The problem also prevailed among many of the secondary teachers surveyed by Beaty (1969). Indeed, this investigator discovered that some secondary teachers were teaching at the elementary level. The impact of the situation was revealed when teachers were asked, among other things, to suggest additions, deletions or revisions to their training programs (1969:301). Its influence was also observed in teachers' comments concerning the value to their subsequent teaching performance of various courses in their programs. Beaty (1969:301) reported that, in the area of general education, teachers suggested more additions than they did deletions. Teachers recommending the largest number of additions were secondary teachers teaching at the elementary level. Similarly, in the area of professional preparation, the teachers who most frequently thought that their work in education courses was inadequate for present job responsibilities were those working outside their area of preparation (1969:301). Once again, however, the majority of all teachers judged student teaching to be the most valuable learning experience in the program (1969:302).

Hutcheon (1972) presented an interim report of an ongoing study at the University of Regina aimed at providing continuous feedback about the perceived effectiveness of the teacher education program at that university. The major weaknesses perceived by the graduates in Hutcheon's study were: (1) insufficient opportunity afforded students to work with children in an actual teaching situation; (2) insufficient emphasis on techniques of instruction; (3) insufficient selection of teacher candidates at entry and exit points of the program; and (4) insufficient human relations training (1972:8).

Kinnin (1977) focused his attention primarily upon the value of the courses in Education Psychology offered during teacher training at the Univervisty of Windsor. He had hypothesized that there would be considerable differences between the views of primary and secondary school teachers, but this did not in fact occur (1977:25). A high proportion of teachers in both groups, for example, agreed that the most important areas to be covered in such courses were classroom management, the problems of the exceptional child, and current innovations in education (1977:25). The courses most highly endorsed were those which emphasized teaching methods and which provided for laboratory experiences -- i.e., observation, participation as assistants to teachers, and student teaching itself. These reactions tended, in Kinnin's view to contradict the criticism that "too much emphasis is given to methods of teaching in the professional education sequence" (1977:25). He further saw, as an important future development in teacher education, greater tailoring of preparation experiences to suit the needs of individual students (1977:25).

Rosser and Denton (1977) were concerned to discover, through the perceptions of beginning teachers, the actual classroom needs of such teachers, and the extent to which skills needed to meet those needs were stressed in the coursework of their teacher education program. Responses obtained from first-year teachers indicated that there were discrepancies between what was being offered in the preparation program and what teachers felt should be stressed (1977:101). Certain of those discrepancies appeared to be significant. The most marked gap was perceived in the area of classroom control: though ninety-six percent of graduates rated these techniques as important or very important, only twenty percent rated their program as being effective or very effective in providing those skills (1977:102). Other strong discrepancies were observed with regard to evaluation skills: many more teachers viewed these as important or very important than those who considered the program to have been effective in providing them (1977:103). In the domain of interpersonal relationships, also, the program was perceived as not being highly effective in providing teachers with competencies considered important or very important (1977:103).

The overall picture which emerged from the study was, therefore, that the teacher education program in question was failing to address the aspects of teacher performance which practitioners considered to be of great importance.

The findings of Clark's (1977) study also affirmed that the weakest point in the preparation program studied was the actual training it gave students for the classroom. Clark (1977:2054A) used a modified Delphi technique to determine which areas within the program offered to prospective secondary school teachers at the University of Arizona most effectively met the needs of future teachers, and which required revision. She involved recent graduates of the program, cooperating teachers and school administrators. Despite the weakness identified above, respondents indicated that the most valuable parts of the program included the professional seminar and the practice teaching. Particularly, however, the positive attitudes of student teachers and faculty, and the communication and shared responsibility between the university and the schools were seen to be significant strengths.

Like so many other teacher education evaluators, Clark recommended the expansion of practice teaching opportunities for students, and the careful reevaluation of departmental course offerings to ensure that objectives were sound and presented appropriate models of good teaching (1977:1054A).

Benson's (1977) purpose was to assess the degree to which three stages in teachers' lives -- periods before, during and after training -- contributed to the development of specific teacher competencies. He was particularly concerned to determine the contribution to that development made by the program of training offered at his own institution.

Benson discovered that all groups of teachers studied perceived continual growth in almost all competencies from the first stage through to the third. However, three major considerations appeared to be associated with this development: (1) if competency potential was intertwined with interpersonal or intrapersonal development, the first stage exerted the greatest influence; (2) if competencies were closely involved with the development of knowledge factors of education, or skills associated with organization and planning, the second stage appeared to have the greatest impact; (3) if competencies contained elements linked with aspects of teaching that could only be recognized and strengthened through actual experience, the final stage contributed most strongly to their development.

Certain specific perceptions relative to the foregoing were of interest. It was agreed that little could be done in the training program to develop certain personal qualities and individual predispostions to teaching associated with the first life stage. Candidates for teaching should therefore be screened on the basis of possessing these. There were, however, a number of traits which appeared to be amenable to further development, and, consequently, worthy of pursuit in the training program. These included the qualities of empathy, enthusiasm, humour and creative thinking.

Respondents' perceptions of the ideal competencies to be pursued during the preservice preparation program indicated a need for greater relevance in program offerings to approximate field conditions. Particularly, it was noted that care should be taken to provide better diagnostic skills so that individual pupil needs in terms of background, performance and progress might be determined (Benson, 1977:2710A).

Pigge (1978) also attempted to determine where teachers felt they had developed important competencies -- whether through their teacher education program, work experience, inservice training or independent study (1978:72). He sought to discover, in addition, teachers' views pertaining to competencies most needed for successful classroom performance, and their own degree of proficiency in those (1978:71).

Pigge (1978:75) found that, overall, "there was a high relationship between the teachers' need for a competency and their proficiencies within the competency areas." The most needed abilities appeared to exist in the areas of discipline, student motivation, student evaluation and individualized instruction. Generally, proficiencies required to meet high need competencies were felt to be developed mainly through work experience. Training programs tended to be given more credit for developing competencies in low need areas (1978:75).

Pigge concluded that practising teachers seemed to indicate that teacher education institutions were negligent in emphasizing sufficiently the most needed skills and competencies (1978:76). It appeared essential (as many other investigators had also stressed) that much closer consultation between teacher educators and practitioners in the field would have to take place in order that "realistic and optimal experiences" might be offered to preservice teachers (Pigge, 1978:76).

Vittetoe (1977) adopted a different approach in his follow-up study of graduates from Central Missouri State University. He obtained principal or superintendent ratings for a number of graduates on a scale ranging from one (superior or outstanding) to five (lacking or inadequate). Ratings were made during the teachers' first year of teaching, and supervisors were then asked, in open-ended interviews, to identify characteristics associated with those teachers rated superior, and those rated inadequate. Further, supervisors were asked to identify the most common causes for failure among first-year teachers. That exercise yielded interesting insights. The most commonly identified cause of failure was lack of classroom control (1977:429). A number of other causes tended to revolve around personal qualities of the teacher: immaturity, lack of confidence, inability to get along with people (1977: 429). Supervisors noted, also, that teachers did less well when assigned to a teaching situation substantially unlike the one in which they had done their student teaching (1977:430).

Several conclusions may be drawn from Vittetoe's findings. The first is that there are certain personal qualities which appear to predispose beginning teachers to less than adequate performance. Secondly, much of the effectiveness of training programs can be diluted by inappropriate placement of teachers in schools.

Gaede (1978) was also concerned to study the plight of the first-year teacher. He sought to discover the perceived value to secondary teachers of different types of professional training, and he measured teachers' self-assessed professional knowledge at five different points of their careers: (1) at the beginning of their first professional course, (2) immediately prior to student teaching, (3) after eight weeks of student teaching, (4) at the end of the first year of teaching, and (5) at the end of three years of teaching. On all aspects of professional competence, he found a steady rise in self-assessed proficiency throughout each stage, except during the period representing the first year of teaching: during that period teachers' self-rating reflected a decline in proficiency (1978:407).

Gaede (1978:407) attributed this to what he termed "reality shock", where the teacher (a) for the first time compared his own performance with that of more experienced colleagues, and (b) found that he faced "unanticipated gaps in his professional competencies -- gaps which were not recognized by him during pre-service training as being important to the teaching task" (1978:407). Student teaching, Gaede maintained, could only approximate the reality of teaching. The student was supported and helped. The first-year teacher, by contrast, was "in many ways isolated from sources of outside help and counsel" (1978:407).

Gaede was led to the conclusion that there were several implications for teacher education in the circumstance: (1) programs should allow for early contacts with real pupils -- "for only through extensive actual teaching can pre-service teachers form accurate conceptions of the skills and knowledge that are essential in teaching" (1978:408), (2) the training institution should become more specifically involved in providing supportive and non-threatening supervision and continuing education during the first year of teaching (1978:409).

This kind of productive cooperation between the training institution and the schools was recognized by Elliott and Steinkellner (1979:423) as essential for the growth and improvement of teacher quality. They contended that "more dialogue needs to exist about areas of responsibility that public schools and colleges of education need to assume for teaching teachers to provide good instruction" (1979:423).

The interviews with teachers and principals held by these investigators revealed that both groups perceived the teacher education program in question to be good. Nevertheless, both groups also indicated certain serious areas of weakness (1977:421). Programs, in their view, should provide prospective teachers with more knowledge about the normal behaviour in children as it related to discipline and behaviour management in general (1977:421). Further, teachers needed a more realistic view of the schools, and the ability to achieve more effective transfer of methods learned into the classroom.

Elliott and Steinkellner (1979:423) concluded that four courses of action seemed desirable to effect improvement in teacher education: (1) the inclusion of more courses of educational psychology throughout the program; (2) the provision of a firmer field base to the program, and a more practical approach to the nature of classroom teaching; (3) more time spent in methods courses in translating theory into practice; and (4) a reordering of time and priorities to ensure that essential needs would be met (1979:423).

Positive relationships between the university and the schools were generated by the evaluation efforts described by Starkman et al. (1979a:39). Direct contacts were established with the graduates of teacher education programs and their supervisors.

This evaluation program developed by Chicago State University was a comprehensive one, and was longitudinal in nature -- it followed students through their university career and beyond, in order to try to explore program impact at different stages. A broad data base was built up for each student, and the various types of information were used to determine possible relationships between variables (1979:126-127). A significant positive factor in the process, as Starkman and his associates saw it, was the fact that descriptors used to delineate program effectiveness had been derived from the field, rather than defined by university faculty (1979:127).

Starkman et al. (1979:128) described the results of a study in which program graduates, faculty and principals were asked to rate the relative importance of a number of teacher attributes. Principals graduates and student teachers were also asked to rate the effectiveness of the teacher education program in providing prospective teachers with those attributes. The fifteen descriptors involved fell into four categories, relative to classroom order, teacher-pupil interaction, teaching emphasis and teaching aids (1979:128).

Results indicated a sharp discrepancy between the perceptions of faculty and those of principals concerning the value of certain of those attributes. Principals, for example, judged "classroom discipline" to be a very important teaching component; faculty, on the other hand, deemed it to be among the five least important components (1979:130). Faculty rated "philosophy of teaching" as relatively important, while principals considered this to be of low importance. Moreover, principals did not regard highly the effectiveness of the program in preparing teachers in this area (1979:130). All groups other than university faculty placed the lowest value on those descriptors which referred to teacher-pupil relationships -- which seemed to suggest that practitioners in the field attached less importance to these more "humanistic" concerns than to the more practical aspects of the teaching function (1979:130). Certainly, the numerous differences of opinion between university faculty and school people seemed to indicate an urgent need for dialogue concerning the aims and purposes of education in general, and of teacher education in particular.

This need for close and continuous consultation between the training institution and the public schools was also stressed by Lynch and Kuehl (1979-80:20-21). They noted the willingness and desire of the schools to work with the university in this way: this fact, in their view, would greatly facilitate the kind of cooperation envisaged (1979-80:20).

The graduates surveyed by Lynch and Kuehl were asked to rate their own competence in the various dimensions of their jobs, and to comment upon the effectiveness of their preparation in those areas (1979-80:17). Respondents indicated that they felt themselves to be most competent in establishing an optimum learning environment, and least competent in individualizing instruction, motivating students and evaluating students. The other area in which they did not feel well-prepared was in classroom control (1979-80:19).

The parts of a preparation program considered to be of greatest value were, predictably, classroom contacts prior to student teaching, methods courses specially designed to develop competencies appropriate to subject areas, and the student teaching itself (1979-80:20). Recommended changes in the University of Northern Iowa teacher education program tended, to a great extent, to deal with these dimensions (1979-80: 19). Existing methods and psychology courses were seen as lacking integration with classroom experiences and as being divorced from the act of teaching and real classroom situations. Further, graduates felt that more background should be given in "the many day-to-day professional skills needed by a teacher" (1979-80:19).

In order that the student teaching experience might be of optimal value, graduates recommended that university supervisors should be more actively involved in helping students through this process. Cooperating teachers in the schools should, too, be carefully chosen (1979-80:20). Graduates also mentioned the importance of the provision of opportunities for student teachers to experience student teaching in a variety of school settings (both urban and rural), at a variety of grade levels, and in a number of subject areas. A longer period of time available for practice teaching would allow for this extended experience (1979-80:21).

In their account of the evaluation of the extended practicum offered at The University of Lethbridge, Mokosch, Dravland and Muendel-Atherstone (1979) reported findings which appeared to confirm the value of the above recommendations. One of the major purposes of the Lethbridge investigation was

> to evaluate the use of Southern Alberta schools as placements for practicum experience for candidates in The University of Lethbridge Faculty of Education teacher education program (1979:7).

As a result of this added dimension to the practicum experience, students had the opportunity to compare rural and urban placements and to assess the value of each. They indicated that, while city schools were more adequately equipped than rural schools, "satisfaction, interaction and learning seemed greatly enhanced in rural placements" (1979:8). The comments of students pertaining to the limitations in equipment and supplies encountered in rural schools suggested that a need existed for the preparation programs to develop in prospective teachers a variety of adaptive skills on which they might draw when teaching in rural schools (1979:8).

One strongly positive factor resulting from the use of rural placements in the practicum was that students' perceptions were altered concerning preferred eventual job postings: many students indicated that they would enjoy working in a rural setting, where previously they might have been reluctant to contemplate such a possibility (1979:9). Drawbacks associated with rural placements concerned the lesser degree of accessibility of students in rural schools for frequent consultation with University supervisors (1979:9-10).

The organization of this dimension of the practicum demanded considerable assistance from those seconded teachers who served as supervisors of field experiences (1979:11). This was clearly a critical aspect of a venture of this kind, and one which brought a variety of benefits to the teacher education program, not the least of which was the increased and more effective communication between the Faculty of Education and the schools (1979:12).

The evaluation of the extended practicum was but one facet of the comprehensive, ongoing evaluative projects mounted by The University of Lethbridge. The Education Research Centre at that institution established a data bank which stored an array of information about teacher education students pertaining to their experiences before, during and after training. Many different studies were carried out to determine relationships among these variables, as a means of gauging the impact of various aspects of the program, and to determine the possibility of predicting students' chances for success in the program and in subsequent teaching performance (Dravland and Greene; 1979:2).

Dravland and Greene (1979:10) noted that the findings of two particular studies were worthy of special mention. Twa (1978) had attempted to develop selection criteria for admission to the Faculty of Education, and constructed equations to predict success in student teaching (Dravland and Greene, 1979:10). He found that there appeared to be complex interactions between psychological and personality factors and potential success in student teaching. Further, there also seemed to be relationships between student teacher performance, the sex of the teacher, and subject and grade level taught. It would appear to be important, therefore to attempt to effect the most appropriate match among all these factors in order to elicit the most favourable performance from would-be teachers.

In the study undertaken by Greene and Dravland (1979) "to determine relationships between success in the education program and success in the teaching profession," findings indicated that

> professors were able to predict teaching success with some degree of accuracy but that specific variables within the student teaching practicum were generally not related to teaching success as measured by principals' evaluations (1979:10).

These findings appear to confirm that it is rather the appropriate combination of a variety of factors present in a given teacher which predisposes him to success in teaching, rather than specific variables taken severally.

Specific strengths and weaknesses of the Lethbridge program were identified by teachers and principals in a follow-up study conducted by Greene (1980). Major strengths appeared to be the field experience components of the program and the interpersonal relations which students enjoyed with faculty. Weaknesses included "a need for more 'practical' experiences, more breadth in content areas, and more help in classroom management" (Greene, 1980:4).

Classroom management was also an area pinpointed by beginning teachers as being weak in The University of Alberta Faculty of Education teacher education program (Ratsoy et al., 1979:40). Teachers viewed interpersonal skills as being poorly handled in their program, while methodology and curricular concerns were thought to be adequately dealt with (Ratsoy et al., 1979:50). Additional findings of particular interest emanated from the responses to open-ended questions in which respondents were able to provide more qualitative opinions about the program. Ratsoy et al. (1979:51) reported a number of the most frequently mentioned views. Among the strengths of the program as a whole, respondents identified: (1) the sound educational background it provided; (2) the occasional small classes which allowed for comfortable and productive interaction; (3) the library resources; and (4) the practicum (1979:51-52). Supervisors praised the following characteristics observable in University of Alberta graduates: (1) their willingness to work; (2) their receptiveness to constructive criticism; (3) their enthusiasm; (4) their positive attitude toward the profession; and (5) their maturity (Ratsoy et al., 1979:52).

Program weaknesses singled out by supervisors and teachers were similar to those encountered in other studies: too much theory; lack of sufficient realism in the presentation of what teaching was like; weak instruction; low standards of academic scholarship in comparison with other programs; lack of integration among courses (Ratsoy et al., 1979:55). Certain specific weaknesses were seen as particularly important. The practicum was considered to be too short, too artificial, and poorly organized. It was not well enough integrated with the relevant Curriculum and Instruction courses, and the quality of supervision provided was often poor (1979:53). Comments made by supervisors affirmed that teachers did not seem to know what to expect on the job: they were not prepared for the paucity of materials and inadequate facilities prevailing in schools. Further, teachers often appeared to be unaware of the legal and bureaucratic framework of the school (Ratsoy et al., 1979:53-54).

The implications of the findings of this study were, once again, that the persistent gulf which existed between the university and the schools restricted the effectiveness of teacher preparation activities in the preservice program. Caldwell's (1979) account of findings from a study of The University of Alberta's practicum appeared to support this contention. He commented upon the linkages between the various partners in the practicum experience, and noted that (1) in terms of clarity concerning the distribution of responsibilities, many cooperating teachers indicated that they were unaware of the details of this; (2) there appeared to be little involvement of cooperating teachers or principals in the planning of the practicum or any other aspect of the teacher education program (1979:12). Despite these negative factors, there was agreement that, generally, communication between the schools and the university had improved.

Summary. The evaluative efforts undertaken on an institutional basis seem to reveal a number of consistent findings, no matter what the context. The practical aspects of the programs are everywhere valued above all other aspects of preparation. Major program weaknesses appear to emerge primarily from a lack of realistic attention to the most pressing needs of classroom teachers. The continuing disjunction between the work of the training institutions and that of the schools seems to contribute greatly to the failure of preservice teacher education to achieve its desired level of effectiveness.

These persistent problems of teacher education are addressed also in evaluation studies which are wider in scope. Examples of such undertakings are presented in the section which follows.

Regional Evaluations of Teacher Education

In addition to the large number of teacher education evaluation studies reported in the literature which focus on the work of specific, single institutions, there are also a variety of such studies which are broader in compass. These tend in general to represent regional, provincial or statewide efforts, initiated by professional or governmental bodies, or by investigators seeking to establish comparative measures of different programs.

Rieger and Woods (1971), for example, reported the results of a study conducted under the aegis of The Alberta Teachers' Association to determine the perceptions of teachers throughout the province concerning the adequacy of their teacher preparation at the various universities in the province. An important dimension to this study was the fact that graduates surveyed were either in their first or their fifth year of teaching. The differences in perception associated with additional classroom experience could thus be gauged.

Many of the results emerging from the study conformed to the pattern observed in institutional evaluations. Educational methods and student teaching were rated the most valuable parts of the program, while courses in Educational Foundations headed the list of least valuable courses (1971:3). Reasons for the choices expressed related heavily to the relevance and utility specific courses were seen as having to the teaching situation. However, intrinsic features of the courses themselves -- amount and quality of content, quality of presentation, etc. -- also accounted for some of the judgments (1971:4).

The most serious deficiencies in their preparation for teaching was perceived by teachers as residing in three main areas: (1) inadequate amount of student teaching or internship; (2) inadequate number or quality of methods courses; and (3) lack of background in teacher-student relations, discipline and classroom problems (Rieger and Woods, 1971:4). Recommendations for improvements to the program centred primarily upon the extension on opportunities for practical experience. However, it was also suggested that the quality of both faculty and students in Education should be improved (1971:5).

Differences of perception observable in the responses of first and fifth-year teachers were significant. For example, more than three times as many first-year teachers as fifth-year ones rated student teaching as their most valuable learning experience (1971:9). On the other hand, twice as many fifth-year as first-year teachers valued most highly their non-education courses. Similarly, nearly twice as many fifth-year teachers judged methods courses to be least valuable (1971:9).

One might infer from the above that, as teachers grow more experienced and more in control of their craft, they come to prize less those aspects of their preparation which provided them with specific practical skills, and to value more highly those which offer a breadth of background knowledge on which they can draw to deepen the content of their teaching.

The study described by Brehaut and Gill (1977) was undertaken to assess the outcomes of various new developments in teacher education in Ontario, and formed part of a research project funded by the Ministry of Education of that province. The data obtained provided information about a variety of aspects of teacher education programs throughout the province. Generally, however, the responses received indicated that over half the participants felt that their preparation had been "poor" or "less than adequate", and that only a very small proportion of respondents rated their preparation as "excellent" or "more than adequate" (1977:6).

The aspects of training with which teachers were generally satisfied were those which appeared to provide concrete guidance for classroom performance -- courses in psychology, and methods, and the experience of practice teaching. Graduates viewed as the most valuable contribution to improving teaching skill the personalized and constructive interaction they had had with their associate teacher and faculty supervisor during the practice teaching exercise (1977:7). Recommendations for improvement to training programs most frequently called for greater emphasis on methods of teaching basic subjects, and for the expansion of the types and variety of practice teaching experiences provided in individual programs (1977:7).

The quality of instructional staff was cited as one of the major weaknesses in the teacher education programs. Instructors were characterized as being "outdated, unqualified and uninterested" (1977:7). This perception of the inadequacy of faculty seemed to arise from a conviction that instructors had no real sense of what was important in the context of the schools. Indeed, the teachers in the Ontario study suggested that their instructors should, from time to time, return to schools for extended periods in order to keep themselves in touch with what the classroom was really like (Brehaut and Gill, 1977:7).

The overall conclusion of the study was that teacher education in Ontario in the early 1970s had not met the expectations of its students, and that many of these considered their training to have been a waste of time (1977:7).

The teachers who participated in the study conducted by Ryan et al. (1979) were more tolerant of their preparation experiences, generally perceiving these to have been as useful as any training could be. The teachers, however, recognized the limitations of such programs, realizing that no aspect of a teacher education program could fully prepare students for the total experience of being a teacher.

Ryan and his associates had employed a somewhat unusual technique in his follow-up study of first-year teachers. Where most studies of the kind employed questionnaire surveys involving large numbers of individuals, Ryan and his colleagues undertook a field study, in which seven researchers observed and interviewed eighteen teachers throughout their first year of teaching, as a means of determining their perceptions of the adequacy of their training. The teachers had been prepared at ten different institutions and received certification from fourteen different programs. The focus in this study was on the individual experiences and perceptions of each teacher rather than on the aggregate performance of all.

Teachers tended to be diverse in their views, but two common themes emerged: a realization of the limitations of preparation programs, and a valuing of first-hand experiences. Teacher education, in the view of these graduates, could only provide the basic knowledge and skills generally required of all teachers (1979:269). However, since each teaching situation was in large measure unique, these general abilities could only be of minimal assistance. Ryan and his colleagues summed up this view in the following way:

> New teachers are much like army recruits who receive basic knowledge, skills, tools and simulated battle experiences in the hope that during the heat of actual battle the interacting variables will result in fight rather than flight (1979:269).

The conclusions reached by Ryan et al. provided an important commentary on the general trend toward demands for more skill training and actual practice teaching (1979:270). The authors reminded readers of Dewey's view concerning student teaching which, they claimed, "had for him a larger purpose than short-term mastery of practical classroom problems" (1979:271). Although Dewey was in favour of field experiences, he wanted teachers to use these to become students of teaching. "He wanted," asserted Ryan and his associates (1979:271), "the focus to be on educational ideas and principles that organize and illuminate the realities of classroom teaching." The call for a firm conceptualization of the purposes of the enterprise was once more being clearly sounded.

Summary. Findings which were generally consistent with those encountered previously emerged from the regional evaluations of teacher education reviewed in this section. Methods courses and student teaching were once again the most highly valued aspects of preparation programs. Insufficient opportunity to test educational principles in real classroom situations was cited as a major weakness.

There were, however, certain additional findings of interest. One study provided insights into the differences in perception between first and fifth-year teachers. While beginning teachers were most concerned about developing skills which could be immediately applied to the classroom, the more experienced teachers seemed to demonstrate most interest in acquiring a greater breadth of knowledge. In one other, significant instance, there was a recognition by teachers participating in the study of the unavoidable limitations of teacher education programs.

There was, finally, renewed stress on the need to define meaningfully the goals and purposes of teacher education.

Evaluation Studies from Developing Countries

When resources are limited, the need for clearly thought out purposes and procedures assumes even larger significance, and careful monitoring of the worth of ongoing efforts becomes a necessary complementary activity. This situation clearly obtains in most developing countries of the world. Curiously, however, evaluative research carried out in these countries appears to be comparatively rare. Two studies are reported which, nevertheless, would seem to typify the efforts likely to be made in this regard.

Marr (1973) reported the results of a study of three colleges of education affiliated to the University of the Punjab, all of which followed the same prescribed program of study. The purpose of the study was "to examine the actual functioning of the programme in the colleges, to find out the problems being faced by them in carrying it out, and to determine the scope of improvement" (1973:283). Investigative procedures included site visits, interviews with administrators, faculty and students, and limited observation of class lectures and other group activities.

Major findings confirmed that a large portion of student teachers' time was taken up in course work, and that the program syllabus prescribed by the university was considered by both students and faculty to be "too lengthy, too theoretical." Marr (1973:284) stated:

> There appeared to be a need for reducing theory as well as bringing out the practical implications of the theory studied. On the other hand, there were indications that the academically gifted students did not find the course challenging enough.

Although practical experience was highly valued, there were major deficiencies perceived in the student teaching component of the programs. The most striking one was that which had been noted repeatedly in studies in the developed world: the lack of adequate and informed supervision. Teacher education faculty were often obliged to supervise large numbers of students, sometimes in subject areas with which they were not familiar. Furthermore, Marr (1973:284) maintained,

> there was a marked lack of agreement among teacher educators on the objectives of student teaching, and they differed on what they tried most to convey to the students they supervised.

Importantly, too, Marr found that although students were helped to plan lessons in advance of student teaching, "no effort was made to inculcate teaching skills before they entered the classroom. In fact there was a lack of awareness of activities that could be introduced for this purpose" (1973:184).

Teaching methods employed by college instructors were judged to be inappropriate. Generally, traditional lecture-type approaches were used, and little attempt was made by faculty to model in their own teaching the more innovative methods they were advocating to their students (Marr, 1973:184). Instructional problems were compounded by the lack of suitable reading and support material.

Evaluation appeared to be a chronic problem in all aspects of the programs studied (1973:185). In theory courses, half of the marks were allotted by internal assessment, and half through external examinations. There was a general complaint that the types of questions given in external examinations encouraged rote learning rather than understanding (1973:285). Similarly, there was dissatisfaction with the uneasy blend of internal and external evaluation of student teaching. The grade for this aspect of the program was assigned on the basis of the two final lessons taught. These were observed by an internal and an external examiner. Teacher educators complained that often the external examiners appointed were administrators of long standing who tended to have old-fashioned ideas of teaching incompatible with those advocated by the colleges (1973:285).

In terms of the professional activity of the faculty, only a few individuals were actively engaged in research, as there were major obstacles to this pursuit: heavy workloads, lack of guidance, inadequate library facilities and lack of finances (1973:185).

This appeared to be a familiar picture in developing countries. However, Haque (1977:112) articulated the desperate need that existed in those countries for systematic, ongoing research. Haque, indeed, recommended the establishment of "properly equipped institutions and organisations" for the purpose. Teacher educators, in his view, should cooperate with such organizations in order to develop or discover methods and techniques of teaching and learning appropriate to their own contexts (1977:112).

Haque's conviction was confirmed by his findings in an evaluation of teacher education programs in Bangladesh (1977). He sought to

> examine the relevance of the curricular offering [sic] of the teacher education programmes of Bangladesh, in order to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the programmes, the practices and the ideas and contents so that a rational basis for improvement of the curricula could be discovered (1977:107).

An important dimension of this undertaking was the assessment of whether the stated objectives of the teacher education programs served the needs of education in the country at different levels (1977:107).

Haque employed a variety of techniques in his research: document analysis, questionnaire surveys of faculties of training institutions, and of graduates of programs (1977:108). He engaged in comparison of teacher education programs on an international basis in order to establish criteria for evaluating teacher education curricula and practices in his own country (1977:109). This exercise revealed to him that, although programs varied from country to country, (basically due to socio-economic and cultural differences), they also possessed many important similarities (1977:109). There was, however, one specific distinction which Haque saw as being worthy of special note:

> In the industrially developed countries, there is little distinction between preparation and status of primary and secondary school teachers. Aptitude and interest rather than lower educational preparation alone determine the placement of intending teachers in training programmes as well as teaching positions. But in a developing country like Bangladesh the determining factor is the level of pre-service education alone in this respect. . . . In

> Bangladesh the predominant thinking is that the less-qualified and ill-equipped teachers should be placed at the lower levels of education (1977:109-110).

Implicit in Haque's contention are significant problems to be faced in teacher education. As the students destined for primary school teaching are usually those with poorest academic credentials and background, the form and extent of training which can be offered in the time available are considerably curtailed. The impact of this factor upon the general quality of education offered at the primary school level is also significant. Serious policy changes are clearly in order in this regard.

Findings relative to specific institutions were reported by Haque (1977:111), who concluded that, in general, curricular content and physical facilities were too poor for the job of producing effective teachers. Again, a lack of suitable books, journals and other instructional materials, as well as needed support services, appeared to be endemic (1977:111). Only one institution appeared to have reasonable facilities and equipment, and even their library resources were inadequate.

Critical questions concerning program effectiveness and the relevance of program objectives to the socio-economic demands of the country produced discouraging answers. Overall, Haque concluded (1977:111), programs were neither effective in realizing their objectives, nor were those objectives consistent with the country's development needs. Little impact from the teacher education programs was felt on the educational system, which was still largely staffed by untrained teachers. Trained teachers were restricted in their ability to apply on the job methods and techniques learned in their professional programs. Haque commented particularly:

> It was observed that the higher the level of teacher education the less is its possibility for application in the educational institutions in this country. The applicability of teacher education may be improved by incorporating contents in the programmes which are more consistent with the objective conditions of the country as well as the life of the people. Otherwise, much of teacher education will add to wastage in education (1977:112).

The comment recalled Scriven's caution that, in evaluating educational programs, it was important not only to judge the degree to which programs had achieved their objectives, but also to judge the worth, the appropriateness of those objectives themselves. It also reiterated the claim, so frequently noted in other studies, that in order to be effective, teacher education had to take into account the realities of the environment it served.

Summary. In this section, a variety of deficiencies were identified relative to teacher education programs in certain developing countries. Many of those deficiencies sprang from the lack of adequate resources, but others arose out of the persistence of irrelevant and inappropriate curricula, objectives, practices and policies. Certain of the criticisms were strongly reminiscent of similar ones raised in connection with programs in developed countries: the over-emphasis on theory; the ineffective teaching of faculty; the lack of constructive supervision in student teaching. Above all, there was the implication that the real purposes of teacher education within the setting in question had not been carefully and rationally conceptualized.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, literature relevant to the central purposes of the study was reviewed from two perspectives. First, an examination was made of the variety of criticisms which have been levelled against the process of teacher education by individuals outside the profession and within it. Attention was also paid to the types of problems seen to be associated with the enterprise.

Secondly, in order to determine the extent to which the weaknesses identified appeared to be supported by empirical evidence, a review was made of research studies in which specific programs of teacher education were evaluated.

Certain dominant factors emerged from the views of the critics:

1. There seemed to be general consensus that the programs and practices of teacher education lacked a firm conceptual base which might infuse them with genuine purpose and meaning.

2. As a consequence of the foregoing, many programs were seen to be lacking in focus and cohesion.

3. Much of what was included in teacher education programs lacked relevance to the actual job of teaching, for the concept of this held in training institutions was often unrealistic.

4. Teacher education programs often failed to take into account the impact that the organizational culture of the schools would be likely to have on the performance of new teachers.

5. Organizational factors, both in respect of internal institutional

arrangements and with regard to relationships with schools, influenced substantially the degree of effectiveness teacher education efforts might achieve.

6. Teacher education institutions in developing countries shared all of the preceding weaknesses, but had to face additional problems arising from inadequate resources, an uneasy mix of training personnel, unclear objectives, and a complex, demanding educational environment.

Evaluation studies examined provided considerable evidence that many of the criticisms advanced were justified. For example, the recurrent plea for more practice in "real" settings seemed to emphasize the view that teacher preparation programs were seen as functioning largely in isolation from the realities of the schools.

Many studies employed as sources of data recent graduates and their supervisors, who provided perceptions regarding strengths and weaknesses of programs in the light of the needs of the schools. The deficiencies which these groups most frequently perceived as existing in teachers' competence tended to be related to those skills necessary for the actual conduct of classroom responsibilities: classroom management, pupil control and discipline, the motivation of pupil interest, and the adapting of teaching to suit individual needs of pupils.

Although student teaching was recognized by most respondents in these studies as the most useful part of preservice preparation, this was seen to suffer from a variety of shortcomings. In many instances, graduates felt that the experience should have been longer, should have come earlier in the program, should have been done in schools more like those in which they would eventually teach, and should have provided more systematic and informed supervision.

Teacher education programs in developing countries were seen to be handicapped by rigid, irrelevant and inappropriate curricula, a serious lack of necessary resources, and from the effects of unsuitable models of teaching provided by instructors.

The theoretical and research literature reviewed appeared to confirm, therefore, that persistent weaknesses prevailed in teacher preparation efforts in many different contexts, and that evaluation of those efforts was an important and necessary undertaking if improvement was to be achieved. It also demonstrated that beginning teachers and their supervisors were able to provide valuable insights into the strengths and failings of teacher education programs.

The review revealed, further, that, typically, most descriptors used to delineate teacher competencies in evaluation studies of this kind were supplied either by teacher education faculty or by practitioners in the field. Few evaluation studies specifically included as criteria of desired teacher performance behaviours established in the research on teaching as being positively related to improved pupil learning. This fact appeared to justify the approach adopted in the present study, which was to incorporate a number of such behaviours, along with others drawn from the theory and practice of teaching as indicators of effective teacher performance.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter is divided into three main sections. In the first section, the design of the study is outlined. The second section deals with the development of the instruments used in the collection of data. In the third section the methodology employed in the conduct of the study is described.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The major purpose of the present study was to gauge the perceived level of effectiveness of teacher education programs in The Bahamas. In accordance with the assumption that the central aim of programs of teacher preparation was to produce practitioners who could function adequately in actual school settings, it was decided that the primary focus of the research should be the post-graduation performance of teachers in those aspects of their work identified as being significant. These were seen to include the promotion of the academic and personal development of students, and successful functioning within the organizational framework of the schools (See Chapter 2 -- Conceptual Framework). From the focus described, the value of current teacher preparation arrangements might legitimately be determined.

Major considerations in the research design, therefore, centred upon (1) the identification of specific respondents who might provide valid data for the purposes of the research, (2) the development of appropriate instruments by which those data might be collected, and (3) the establishment of feasible methodological procedures for the conduct of the research.

Sources of Data

Two groups of potential participants were identified for the purposes of the study: (1) a group of recently-graduated teachers who would be invited to assess their own performance and the value to them of their preparation, and (2) the supervisors of these teachers, who would be requested to provide their assessment of the teachers' performance.

Teachers. The population of teachers surveyed in this study consisted of all the thirty-six primary and thirteen junior secondary school teachers who had successfully completed College of The Bahamas teacher education programs in 1979, and who had subsequently taken up teaching positions in Bahamian schools. Twenty-six of those teachers had been posted to schools in New Providence, while the remainder occupied positions in schools throughout the other islands of The Bahamas (Table 1).

This particular group of teachers was selected for several reasons. First, they represented the first group of graduates almost all of whom would have received their entire professional preparation at the College of The Bahamas as it is presently organized. Many previous graduates would have begun their training under a different system, at one of the two teachers' colleges which were absorbed into the College of The Bahamas structure in 1975 (Appendix A).

Secondly, it appears to be generally recognized that the first

Table 1

Study Population Classified by Type and Location of Schools

	Type of School					
Location of School	Primary	Junior Secondary	Senior Secondary	All-Age	Special	Total
New Providence	19	4	2	0	1	26
Family Islands	4	1	2	16	0	23
Total	23	5	4	16	1	49

year of teaching is a critical one for the beginning teacher. Gaede, for example, suggests that the first-year teacher is in a position at that time to perceive unanticipated gaps in his professional competence -- gaps not recognized during his preservice training as being important to the teaching task (1978:405). Moreover, Ryan et al. (1979:268) maintained that the first year of teaching was crucial in shaping teachers' attitudes and feelings about their teacher education experiences of years past.

Finally, as this study depended heavily upon the recollection of teachers about details of their preparation programs, it was deemed prudent, so as to minimize the possibility of distortion of recall, to focus upon individuals who had not been too long out of the training institution.

Supervisors. Principals of the schools in which participating teachers were working were invited to supply their assessment of those teachers' performance. However, the option was also provided for principals to defer to some other member of the supervisory staff if such a person was thought to be a more suitable individual to provide the information requested.

Certain ethical considerations arise when supervisors are asked to provide an assessment of teachers' performance in such a study. Pigge (1978:10) points to the danger of the supervisors' being accused of making a covert evaluation. He advised that, where supervisors are being asked to supply an appraisal of teachers, it is appropriate that a copy of the supervisors' questionnaire and cover letter be sent to the teacher concerned, with an explanation of why such information was being sought. The teacher himself could then be asked to forward the instrument to his supervisor if he had no objections to this individual's participating in the research. This recommended procedure was followed in the present study.

Supervisors were included in the study with a view to their providing an additional, possibly more objective perspective of teacher performance. Further, the assessments which they supplied might provide valuable insights into the adequacy of teachers' preparation in relation to the realities of their particular schools.

Instrumentation

The research instruments used in this study consisted of two questionnaires (one for teachers and one for supervisors), and semi-structured interviews (conducted with both teachers and supervisors).

The collection of data by means of questionnaires has a number of disadvantages. Significant among these is the problem of non-returns.

Mouly (1970:243) pointed out that

> Not only do non-returns decrease the size of the sample on which the results are based -- which is relatively unimportant wherever the sample is large -- but it introduces a bias inasmuch as non-respondents are likely to differ from respondents in fundamental ways.

Despite this major drawback, however, Mouly (1970:242) recognized certain distinct advantages of the questionnaire. It could afford wider geographical coverage and reach persons otherwise difficult to contact. Further, because of its greater impersonality, it might elicit more candid and objective responses.

Both of the foregoing dimensions were taken into account when the decision was made to adopt the questionnaire as the major research tool for the present study. While it was recognized that the problem of non-returns might be of particular significance in respect of so small a research population, the use of a mailout questionnaire appeared to provide the most practical and economical means of reaching a group of respondents who were widely scattered geographically. Travel to the remoter areas within The Bahamas was too costly, too difficult and too time-consuming to render more direct forms of data collection (such as interviewing of the total population or observation) a feasible alternative.

A decision was made, nevertheless, to conduct interviews with a representative sample of teachers and supervisors, in order to validate responses obtained by means of the questionnaire survey, and to elicit additional, more detailed information of a qualitative nature concerning graduates' performance and the perceived value to them of their preparation.

Methodological Procedures

The steps necessary to effect completion of the research were defined as including the following: (1) the identification of the research population; (2) the securing of permission to conduct the research; (3) the development and validation of instruments; (4) the collection of data; (5) the analysis of data; and (6) the reporting of the findings. It was anticipated that the procedures would occupy something more than one year.

DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF INSTRUMENTS

The instruments employed in the collection of data were designed specifically for use in the present study. They were constructed to incorporate criteria established as being generally important in the evaluation of programs of teacher education, and also certain dimensions judged to be of significance in the Bahamian context in particular.

Teachers' Questionnaire

This instrument consisted of three parts: (1) a personal data sheet; (2) a section in which teachers were asked to rate the adequacy of their performance and that of their preparation in certain specific areas of teacher behaviour; and (3) a section containing a series of open-ended questions.

Part I. Information was sought from respondents with regard to a number of personal and demographic variables. These included: sex and age of teachers; the type of College of The Bahamas program followed; the type of certification held; the subject specializations studied at college and the subjects teachers were actually teaching; years of teaching experience prior to entering the College of The Bahamas; the type, location and size of school in which teachers were currently teaching.

This information was used to determine the extent to which respondents' perceptions appeared to be related to such factors.

Part II. This section consisted of a list of thirty-seven teacher behaviours. Respondents were asked to indicate, by circling a number from one to five on two Likert-type scales, (1) how well they thought they were performing in each area, and (2) how well they felt their teacher education program had prepared them in each area. On the two scales the categories provided were: very poorly (1); poorly (2); adequately (3); well (4); and very well (5).

The behaviours included in this section were derived in the following manner:

1. A preliminary list of forty-seven skills, attitudes and areas of knowledge, relevant to the dimensions identified in the conceptual framework as significant, was generated from the literature on teacher education and on teaching (Appendix B). The initial criteria for the inclusion of an item on the list were (a) the indication of research findings that the item appeared to be positively associated with increased pupil learning, (b) the consistency with which the attribute was identified in other studies as being a critical factor in successful teacher performance, and (c) the judgment of the investigator that the attribute was likely to have importance in the Bahamian context.

Sources consulted at this stage included the following: Baergen, Kinahan and Yakimovich (1979); Burke and Stone (1975); Clarke (1970); College of The Bahamas Education Division (1979); Dziuban and Sullivan (1978); MacKay (1979); Middleton and Cohen (1979); Peter (1975); Pigge (1978); Ratsoy, McEwen and Caldwell (1979); Rosenshine and Furst (1971); Smith et al. (1969); Sowards (1968); Starr (1974); Watts (1972).

2. This initial list was distributed to faculty in the Education Division of the College of The Bahamas, as well as to a variety of other educational practitioners in The Bahamas, for their comments concerning the relevance and importance of the items to teachers in Bahamian schools. Educators who participated in this exercise included ten members of each of the following professional associations: the Bahamas Union of Teachers, the Primary School Principals' Association, the Secondary School Principals' Association; ten professional officers of the Ministry of Education and Culture; and District Education Officers in several Family Islands. A generally encouraging response was received from the large majority of these groups, as shown in Table 2.

3. A revised list of attributes was formulated on the basis of the results of these procedures. A decision was then made to express these essential attributes in terms of specific behaviours, since the professional skill, attitudes and knowledge possessed by teachers seemed most likely to be recognized through the actions of those teachers. The thirty-seven teacher behaviours thus derived are listed in Table 3.

4. In order to ascertain the legitimacy of using these behaviours as indicators of teacher performance in the present study,

Table 2

Questionnaire Development; Response Rate of Educators Consulted

Respondent Group	Possible Responses	Actual Responses	Percentage Responses
Education Faculty -- College of The Bahamas	20	9	45
Bahamas Union of Teachers	10	7	70
Primary School Principals' Association	10	7	70
Secondary School Principals' Association	10	7	70
Professional Officers -- Ministry of Education	10	7	70
District Education Officers -- Family Islands	5	4	80
Total	65	41	63

an examination was made of the stated objectives of core courses within the College of The Bahamas teacher education programs. This procedure confirmed that the behaviours assembled for use in this research adequately reflected the key attributes which the program sought to develop.

5. As a means of ensuring that objectives stated in course outlines were in fact the ones actually being pursued by faculty responsible for implementing the programs, informal discussions were held with the relevant instructors within the Education and the academic divisions. It was concluded from these discussions that none of the

Table 3

Teacher Behaviours

A. Lesson Preparation

*1. Selecting appropriate subject content
2. Specifying instructional objectives
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities
*4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials
*5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance childrens' learning experiences

B. Classroom Management

7. Arranging the classroom environment
8. Grouping students for instruction
*9. Maintaining classroom order
*10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary
*11. Making efficient use of class time
12. Keeping accurate records

C. Lesson Presentation

*13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner
*14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter
15. Using Standard English appropriately
*16. Displaying enthusiasm
*17. Presenting information clearly
*18. Using effective questioning techniques
*19. Using a variety of instructional techniques
*20. Individualizing instruction when necessary
*21. Encouraging students to participate in class
*22. Building positively on students' ideas
*23. Using praise

D. Assessment

24. Diagnosing students' learning needs
*25. Monitoring students' progress
26. Evaluating students' achievements
27. Evaluating own performance

E. Interpersonal Relationships

28. Developing positive relationships with students
*29. Displaying warmth and caring for students
*30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals
*31. Motivating students to learn
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect
33. Communicating positively with parents
34. Working well with other teachers
35. Working well with administrative staff
36. Working well with school support staff

F. Professional Awareness

37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development

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*Research based

items proposed was glaringly out of line with behaviours instructors attempted to develop in their courses.

Part III. This section consisted of a series of open-ended questions which elicited respondents' perceptions concerning the most important and least important behaviours included in Part II, other behaviours of importance in their work, the value to their teaching of the various components of the teacher education programs, and the adequacy of resources and services provided at the College of The Bahamas.

Supervisors' Questionnaires

Like the teachers' questionnaire, this instrument consisted of three parts: (1) a personal data section; (2) a section in which supervisors were asked to rate the performance of participating teachers on each of the thirty-seven teacher behaviours previously described; and (3) a series of open-ended questions which provided an opportunity for supervisors to offer their perceptions concerning the overall strengths and weaknesses of College of The Bahamas teacher education programs, and to make suggestions for their improvement.

Part I. Information was sought from respondents with respect to the following personal and demographic variables: sex and age; supervisory position occupied; total years of teaching experience; years of administrative or supervisory experience; type, location and size of school; size of teaching staff. This information was used to determine the extent to which supervisors' perceptions appeared to be related to such factors.

Part II. This section contained the same list of thirty-seven behaviours included in Part II of the teachers' questionnaire. Supervisors were asked to indicate, by circling a number from one to five on a Likert-type scale, how well teachers were performing in each area. As in the instance of the teachers' questionnaire, the categories for response provided on the rating scale were: very poorly (1); poorly (2); adequately (3); well (4); and very well (5).

Part III. Through a series of open-ended questions, supervisors were encouraged to present their opinions concerning the most important and the least important of the behaviours listed, the greatest strengths and the most serious shortcomings of the College of The Bahamas teacher education programs, and improvements which might be made in these. It was hoped to obtain in this way a somewhat broader view of the perceived level of effectiveness of the programs in question.

Interviews

It was envisaged that the purposes of the interviews conducted with teachers and supervisors would be (1) to validate responses obtained on the questionnaires, and (2) to derive an additional, more detailed perspective on teacher performance and on the apparent strengths and weaknesses of the teacher education programs. It was hoped, also, to discover by this means, the nature of any possible unanticipated outcomes of the programs, and indications of contextual factors operating within either the college or the schools which might be seen to influence the level of effectiveness those programs were able to achieve.

In order to pursue all these ends, it was decided that an instrument was required which would be sufficiently structured to elicit in a consistent fashion information pertinent to areas of performance measured in the questionnaires, but also sufficiently open as to bring to light respondents' individual perceptions of other significant dimensions of their experience.

A semi-structured form of interview, therefore, seemed to offer a useful compromise between the more reliable kind of information which might be obtained through a highly structured, standardized format, and the more valid, but possibly irrelevant, responses which might emerge in a totally unstructured situation. Maccoby and Maccoby (1954:454) suggested that the two techniques need not be mutually exclusive. A specific set of questions might be formulated, with options provided for alternative sub-questions. For their part, Merton, Fiske and Kendall (1956:43) offered valuable advice concerning the use of an interview guide of the type suggested to tap the subjective concerns and experiences of respondents. They stressed that it was important that the guide not be followed too rigidly, for if the interviewer confined himself too closely to areas set forth in advance, he might ignore important hints which could extend the range of the interview. The guide, therefore, was treated as a flexible tool, which allowed the interviewer to respond to cues and implications contained in responses provided.

Murphy (1980:77) called this type of interviewing "intensive interviewing" and suggested that it could reveal what a program had meant to participants, for, since it was flexible, it could allow the investigator to adjust to circumstances and keep probing until he got the facts. "Intensive interviewing," Murphy maintained, "is an exploratory tool that can get at the nitty-gritty of program operations, revealing what actually happened, why, and with what impact" (1980:77).

In accordance with the advice cited above, guides were drawn up for use in this study which contained first, questions pertaining to those areas of teacher performance touched upon in the questionnaires, but also, questions which invited respondents to address in greater detail broader issues which might have a bearing on the concerns of the study.

Pilot Testing of Instruments

In order to determine the content validity of the preliminary forms of the instruments designed for use in the present study, these were pilot-tested during October and November, 1980.

Two groups of teachers were selected as potential participants in the pilot study: (1) a stratified random sample of 1978 College of The Bahamas teacher education graduates who had been working in schools for two years, and (2) a stratified random sample of 1980 College of The Bahamas teacher education graduates who had recently completed their final teaching practice. Samples were stratified according to the type and location of schools in which teachers were working, and according to the sex of the teachers concerned. These groups were considered to be sufficiently similar to the target population for their responses to provide a reasonably valid picture of the kinds of information the instruments were likely to elicit.

Supervisors in the schools where 1978 graduates were working were also included in the pilot study. It was not possible, however, to include members of the college faculty who had supervised 1980 graduates during their teaching practice, for many of those individuals had completed their term of employment with the college and were no longer resident in The Bahamas. Further, since 1980 graduates had only just begun their teaching in the schools, it was not considered appropriate to invite their present supervisors to provide assessments of their performance.

The pattern of teacher and supervisor participants in the pilot study is presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Pilot Study Respondents

Groups		Teachers		Supervisors[1]	
		Possible	Actual	Possible	Actual
1978	New Providence	10	9	7	5
	Family Islands	10	6	7	4
1980	New Providence	8	5	--	--
	Family Islands	14	6	--	--
Total		42	26	14	9
Percentage			62		64

[1] Only supervisors of 1978 graduates were included in the study.

Questionnaires. Pilot-testing of the questionnaires was conducted to determine the following:

1. whether the instruments would elicit the kind of information desired;

2. whether any of the items included were perceived as being offensive, ambiguous or irrelevant;

3. whether significantly different responses would be obtained in Part II of the questionnaire if the teacher behaviours were grouped into categories as opposed to being listed in random order;

4. whether the responses provided by teachers who had been in the field for two years would differ significantly from those provided by teachers recently graduated from their preparation programs;

5. whether there appeared to be a danger of the occurrence of a response set for each item in Part II of the teachers' questionnaires if the performance and preparation scales were placed side by side.

Alternative forms of each questionnaire were prepared, one with the items in Part II listed in random order, and the other with the items grouped in categories as shown in Table 3. Half of the subjects in each group (teachers and supervisors) received each version. Principals' copies were sent first to the teachers concerned in accordance with the procedure described earlier in this chapter.

Interviews. Because of the difficulties and expense involved in travel to the Family Islands, the pilot-testing of interview guides was carried out only in New Providence. Nine of the nineteen New Providence teachers included in the pilot sample were interviewed. Six of these were 1978 graduates -- two primary and four secondary school teachers. The remaining three -- two primary and one junior secondary teacher -- were from the 1980 group. Interviews were also held with the principals of four schools -- three primary and one junior secondary -- in which 1978 graduates worked. During interviews, in addition to being asked to respond to questions pertaining to teacher performance and to the value of teacher education programs, participants were asked to give their reactions to the form and content of the cover letters and the questionnaires. They were also asked to comment on the clarity, appropriateness and acceptability of those documents.

Analysis and Results of Pilot Test Data

A series of *t*-tests was applied to data obtained from Part II of the teachers' questionnaires to determine whether there appeared to be any significant differences between (a) the responses elicited by the alternative forms of the questionnaire, and (b) the responses given by 1978 and 1980 graduates. None was found in either instance.

Correlated *t*-tests applied to data obtained from ratings of performance and preparation yielded results significantly different at the .05 level for eleven out of the thirty-seven items. Though this number of significant differences was not large, it was judged that the ratings given on each scale reflected the true perceptions of the participants. Teachers' responses in interviews indicated that they felt that they were performing well in those aspects of teaching for which they had received adequate preparation. However, there were certain behaviours for which they felt they had received little preparation, but in which they had achieved proficiency either as a result of their own dispositions, or of actual teaching experience. These behaviours, which were, for the most part, dimensions of interpersonal relationships, and various aspects of classroom management, were those for which the significantly different results were obtained (Appendix C). It was concluded, as a consequence, that response set was not likely to prove a serious problem. This conclusion bore out similar onces encountered in two of the studies reviewed in Chapter 3 (Ratsoy et al., 1979; Rosser and Denton, 1977). In the final version of the questionnaire, therefore, for the greater convenience of respondents, the scales on which teachers were asked to rate their performance and preparation were placed side by side.

The procedure of channelling supervisors' questionnaires through the teachers concerned proved to be a practicable one. Only four of the teachers included in the pilot study (three of whom were at the same school) declined to seek the participation of their principals or other supervisors. In the case of the three junior secondary teachers, both the principal and the relevant head of department were new to their positions. Teachers did not feel, therefore, that these individuals could supply a valid picture of their performance. One Family Island primary school teacher found herself in a similar position: her principal had only been at the school since September, and had never seen her teach. She felt that it would consequently be meaningless to ask this person to supply an assessment of her work. All other teachers who responded indicated that they had passed questionnaires on to the relevant supervisors.

Questionnaires were finalized in accordance with the results of the pilot tests. It was decided that the categorized form of the items in Part II should be adopted for the main study, since a number of spontaneous comments were made during interviews indicating respondents' preference for this approach. As interview respondents had stated that none of the items seemed to them to be either offensive or ambiguous, no major changes were made in the items included. However, for the sake of greater precision, an opportunity was provided in the open-ended questions for teachers to comment separately on the value to them of their methods courses as opposed to other Education courses.

Copies of the teachers' questionnaire and the accompanying cover letter are to be found in Appendix D. The cover letter and questionnaire addressed to supervisors are found in Appendix E.

Interview responses demonstrated that the guides devised were appropriate for eliciting the kinds of information desired. Minor changes were made to the wording of certain questions where these appeared to be necessary to eliminate ambiguity. Final forms of the interview guides used in the study are included in Appendices F and G.

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF INSTRUMENTS

In any study employing questionnaires as a means of measuring certain phenomena, important questions arise concerning the quality of these research instruments. Dressel (1976:119) maintained that, whenever any instrument of measurement was used, issues of validity, reliability and precision arose. These issues would clearly have to be addressed if results obtained were to be viewed with any degree of confidence.

Reliability

Most simply stated, the reliability of an instrument refers to the consistency with which that instrument performs. Mouly (1970:115) pointed out that, for an instrument to be reliable, "it must be consistent in the measurement of whatever it measures." Dressel (1976:120) claimed: "Reliability refers to the reproducibility of a set of measurements. It has to do with consistency or stability of measurements over time."

In the present study, constraints of time, as well as practical considerations, precluded the use of the procedure frequently adopted as a means of establishing this level of stability -- the test-retest approach. However, in the pilot study, no significantly different results were obtained from graduates of two different years. This seemed to suggest that it would not be unreasonable to assume that the instrument was likely to possess some degree of temporal stability. Moreover, Mouly (1970:115) contended that, in research, errors of unreliability representing random errors tended to cancel out. In the light of these two factors, the investigator concluded that, for the purposes of the present research, the questionnaire developed would produce sufficiently reliable results.

Validity

Mouly (1970:116) contended that validity referred to the extent to which an instrument measured what it purported to measure. A particularly significant aspect of this concept was content validity -- i.e., the relevance of all items included to the topic under investigation, the completeness of the coverage of the overall topic, the clarity and lack of ambiguity of questions, etc. (Mouly, 1970:254).

Dressel (1976:121) expressed the view that, when the present competence of an individual was to be assessed, consideration of the content validity of the instrument was important and appropriate. He stated:

> The universe of tasks in which such competency is to be exhibited (usually too extensive for a complete demonstration) is sampled by some well-defined rules, and performance on the sample is taken as an index of competency in the total domain. The judgment of experts -- supplemented by analysis and classification of the content, ability and area of application tapped by each item -- may be the best evidence available for the test relative to the domain.

The procedures described by Dressel appeared to be particularly fitting to the assessment of teacher performance which formed the core of this study. The analysis of the task domain undertaken in the establishment of the conceptual framework of the study provided the criteria which guided the initial sampling of items included in the research instruments. Individuals considered to have expertise in the area provided their judgments concerning the adequacy and relevance of these items, with particular regard to the context of the study. This latter dimension was considered to be of special importance, for Mouly (1970:116) suggested that validity was a specific concept. "A test is valid," he maintained, "not in general, but is valid for a particular group under particular circumstances."

The adequacy of the items as specifications of dimensions of successful teacher performance was confirmed by the opinions of pilot study participants, who generally considered all behaviours included in the research instruments to be important in their work as teachers.

The dependence upon the opinions of teachers concerning their own performance involves another issue which was raised by Mouly (1970:302). He commented upon the limitations of the self-report as a technique in research, pointing out that the individual might be a poor judge of himself and a biased reporter. "His report," claimed Mouly, "tells us not what he is but what he feels (perhaps unconsciously) he is, or would like to be, or would like us to believe he is." Nevertheless, Mouly conceded that the technique did have value, particularly as an exploratory tool which might provide hypotheses to be tested subsequently by more rigorous means (1970:302).

Borich, for his part, asserted that the assumption that a teacher could judge his own performance, and could make an objective judgment when asked to do so, was a tenable one when the purpose of the data collection was the evaluation of training and not the evaluation of individual teachers themselves (1979:7).

In recognition, however, of the possibility that teachers might tend to project an idealized picture of their own competence, supervisors' ratings of teacher performance were included in the present study as an external check of the validity of the teachers' self-reports. Pilot test results indicated that, by and large, there were very few areas in which principals rated teachers very differently from the way in which teachers rated themselves. Indeed, in several instances, supervisors rated teachers more highly than the teachers rated themselves. It seemed reasonable to conclude, therefore, that respondents were likely to provide relatively honest and valid information.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The following procedures were carried out to bring the study to a conclusion.

Permission to Conduct the Research

Permission to conduct the present study was obtained from the Director of Education of The Bahamas early in 1980. This permission was conveyed by personal communication to the researcher, and encouragement and assistance were offered. Free access to the schools and their personnel for the purposes of distributing research instruments and conducting interviews was generously allowed.

Identification of the Research Population

Members of the target population were identified from the records of the Education Division of the College of The Bahamas. These included all those teachers who had graduated from teacher education programs in June and December of 1979, and who were teaching in Bahamian schools in September, 1980. In addition, information concerning 1978 and 1980 graduates was also obtained for the purposes of the pilot study. Details of current postings of all these teachers were requested from the Director of Education during September, 1980 (See Appendix H).

On the basis of posting information received, a stratified random sample was drawn from the population of 1979 graduates so that interviews might be conducted with a representative group of respondents. Variables taken into account in the drawing of the sample included the sex of respondents, and the type and location of schools in which they were teaching. This procedure was undertaken in accordance with the advice given by Engelhart (1972:108):

> The population interviewed should be a population comparable to the questionnaire population sampled, not a biased population comparable to the population of the questionnaire respondents (Emphasis in the original).

Initially, the intention was to interview a total of twenty-four teachers -- twelve in New Providence and twelve in the Family Islands. However, when the interviewer arrived at one Family Island, she discovered that one of the teachers due to be interviewed there had been posted to another settlement on a different island. Constraints of time and resources did not permit the additional travel which would have been entailed in securing an interview with that individual, so the teacher concerned was eliminated from the sample.

Two principals did not take part in the interviews: one Family Island principal was ill at the time of the on-site visitation, and one New Providence principal preferred not to participate since she was newly appointed to her post and did not feel qualified to provide the information required.

The distribution of teachers interviewed is presented in Table 5. Table 6 shows the breakdown of supervisors interviewed.

Data Collection

As described earlier in this chapter, a pilot study was conducted during October and November of 1980. Following the analysis of pilot test results, necessary adjustments were made to the research instruments, and the final versions of these were prepared for distribution early in January, 1981.

Table 5

Interview Respondents Classified by Type of School: Teachers

Location of School	Type of School Primary	Junior Secondary	Senior Secondary	All-Age	Special	Total
New Providence	8	2	1	0	1	12
Family Islands	3	0	1	7	0	11
Total	11	2	2	7	1	23

Table 6

Interview Respondents Classified by Type of School: Supervisors

Location of School	Type of School Primary	Junior Secondary	Senior Secondary	All-Age	Special	Total
New Providence	5	2	1	0	1	9
Family Islands	3	0	1	4	0	8
Total	8	2	2	4	1	17

The collection of data in the main study was unexpectedly delayed by the occurrence during the month of January, 1981, of a widespread teachers' strike. Ministry of Education and Culture schools throughout the country were virtually shut down for a period of three and a half weeks. It was considered prudent to await the return of teachers to the schools before attempting to collect the bulk of the data, for it was not possible to obtain home mailing addresses for many teachers, and, particularly in the case of Family Island teachers, it was difficult to reach them by telephone.

As a consequence, questionnaires were not distributed until the last week in January, 1981. Those destined for teachers working in the Family Islands were dispatched by post, while those intended for teachers in New Providence were hand delivered to the relevant schools. All recipients of mailed questionnaires were provided with stamped, addressed enveloped to facilitate return. Questionnaires distributed in New Providence were all collected by hand.

Interviews. Appointments for interviews with teachers and supervisors in New Providence were made by telephone, through the principals of the schools concerned. Appointments for interviews with teachers and supervisors in the Family Islands were made, for the most part, through the District Education Officers in the respective islands. This procedure was necessary since very few of the schools involved could be reached directly by telephone. In this way, also, arrangements could be made for the researcher to be met at airports and for transport to be provided to the schools in question.

The actual timing of on-site visitations to schools in outlying islands was determined in large measure by the schedules of airline flights to and from those islands. Visits to teachers in the Family Islands were carried out during the week of February 2, 1981. Interviews in New Providence were conducted during the following two weeks. The interviewer was welcomed with courtesy and warmth in all of the schools in which interviews were conducted. These school settings often provided a telling backdrop for responses given, for the investigator was able to observe at first hand many of the physical conditions and organizational arrangements which were being described by teachers and supervisors. With the permission of respondents, all interviews were tape-recorded, so that the full text of discussions might be available for subsequent transcription and analysis.

Wherever possible, completed questionnaires were collected at the time of the interviews. When these were not available at those times, participants were encouraged to complete and return them promptly.

A number of difficulties complicated data collection procedures. It was discovered that incorrect posting information had been received for three teachers, and that another had been transferred at the beginning of January. Duplicate sets of questionnaires had, therefore, to be distributed to those individuals some weeks after the initial mailout.

In mid-February, a follow-up letter was sent to teachers who had not yet returned completed questionnaires (Appendix I). A series of subsequent follow-ups was made by telephone during March and April of 1981. Where necessary, additional copies of instruments were forwarded to participants. As a result of these activities, a total of thirty-seven responses were received from teachers, representing seventy-six percent of the total population. Thirty-one or seventy percent of a possible forty-four responses were received from supervisors.

Characteristics of Respondents: Teachers

In this section, the characteristics of teacher respondents are described according to the personal and demographic information provided in Part I of their questionnaires. The overall distribution of teacher respondents, classified by type and location of schools, is presented in Table 7.

Sex and age of respondents. Three respondents (8 percent) were male, while thirty-four (92 percent) were female. All three male respondents and thirty of the female respondents were between the ages of twenty and twenty-nine. The four remaining women fell into the age group thirty to thirty-nine. The distribution of these teachers by age and sex appears in Table 8.

College of The Bahamas program followed. As is evident from an examination of Table 9, of the thirty-seven responding teachers, thirty-one had followed a program of study leading to a Teacher's Certificate only. The remaining six had received a College of The Bahamas Associate Degree as well as their Teacher's Certificate. Of these six, four were secondary school teachers and two were primary teachers. All six were women.

Certification received. Twenty-eight of the thirty-seven respondents had been certificated as primary school teachers. Of these,

Table 7

Distribution of Responding Teachers Classified by Type and Location of School

Location of School	New Providence		Family Islands		Total	
	Possible	Actual	Possible	Actual	Possible	Actual
Primary	19	19	4	2	23	21
Junior Secondary	4	4	1	1	5	5
Junior/ Senior Secondary	0	0	1	0	1	0
Senior Secondary	2	2	1	0	3	2
All-Age	0	0	16	8	16	8
Special	1	1	0	0	1	1
Total	26	26	23	11	49	37
Percentage Returns		100		48		76

Table 8

Teacher Respondents Classified by Age and Sex

	20 - 29		30 - 39		
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Total
New Providence	1	21	0	4	26
Family Islands	2	9	0	0	11
Total	3	30	0	4	37
Percentage	8	81	0	11	100

Table 9

Teacher Respondents Classified by College of The Bahamas Program Followed

	Teacher's Certificate Only		Teacher's Certificate With Associate Degree		
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Total
New Providence	1	20	0	5	26
Family Islands	2	8	0	1	11
Total	3	28	0	6	37
Percentage	8	76	0	16	100

two were men and twenty-six were women. The other nine respondents (one man and eight women) had received certificates in junior secondary school teaching (Table 10).

Table 10

Teacher Respondents
Classified by Certification Received

	Primary		Junior Secondary		
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Total
New Providence	1	19	0	6	26
Family Islands	1	7	1	2	11
Total	2	26	1	8	37
Percentage	5	70	3	22	100

Subject specializations. In accordance with their training, all primary teachers but one were teaching general subjects in primary or all-age schools. The one exception was employed as a remedial teacher in a junior secondary school in New Providence.

All the junior secondary teachers had specialized in two subject areas at college. Two of these teachers had been posted to senior secondary schools and were teaching just one of their special subjects. Three others who worked in junior secondary schools and one who worked in an all-age school were teaching both of their special areas. One teacher was teaching general subjects at a remedial level to junior secondary students, and another was working with a group of mentally retarded adolescents in a special school. One male junior secondary teacher was teaching general subjects in a small all-age school on a Family Island. The pattern of subject combinations studied and taught is shown in Table 11.

Table 11

Junior Secondary Teachers Subject Specializations

	Subjects Studied	Subjects Currently Teaching
New Providence		
Junior Secondary	English - Social Studies	English - Social Studies
	Religion - Social Studies	Religion - Social Studies
	English - Physical Education	General Subjects - Remedial
Senior Secondary	English - Home Economics	Home Economics
	Mathematics - Science	Mathematics
Special	English - Science	General Subjects - Remedial
Family Islands		
Junior Secondary	Social Studies - Science	Social Studies - Science
All-Age	Religion - Home Economics	Religion - Home Economics
	Religion - Music	Religion - Music - English - Science

Teaching experience prior to entering college. Teachers were asked to indicate how much, if any, teaching experience they had had prior to entering the College of The Bahamas. Of the thirty-seven respondents, a total of twenty-two teachers (three male and nineteen female) had had no previous teaching experience. Of the remaining fifteen respondents, one had taught for less than a year before beginning training, while ten had had between one and five years of experience. Four teachers had taught for more than five years before entering college. The distribution of these respondents is presented in Table 12. For the purposes of subsequent data analysis, teachers were considered according to two major groups: those who had had experience prior to entering college and those who had none.

Table 12

Teacher Respondents Classified by Length of Previous Teaching Experience

	None		Less than 1 Year		1 - 5 Years		More than 5 Years		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Primary	2	13	0	1	0	8	0	4	28
Junior Secondary	1	6	0	0	0	2	0	0	9
Total	3	19	0	1	0	10	0	4	37
Percentage	8	51	0	3	0	27	0	11	100

Type of school. As was shown in Table 7, twenty-one of the teacher respondents (nineteen in New Providence and two in the Family Islands) were currently teaching in primary schools. There were five teachers posted to junior secondary schools -- four in New Providence and one in a Family Island. Two teachers worked in senior high schools in the capital, and another in a special school for the mentally retarded. The remaining eight teacher respondents had been posted to all-age schools in the Family Islands.

Size of school. Table 13 shows that teacher respondents in New Providence were working in schools ranging in size from quite small (100 to 249 students) to very large (over 1750 students). Generally, most primary schools had an enrollment of between 500 and 1000 students. However, there were four primary schools with fewer than five hundred students, and four whose enrollments numbered between 1250 and 1499 students. Junior secondary schools ranged in size from 750 to 1499 students. Senior secondary schools were very large, with one having a student enrollment of between 1500 and 1749 students, while the other had a student body of more than 1750 students.

Family Island schools, on the other hand, tended to be very much smaller than those in the capital. Four respondents were working in schools with fewer than 100 students. Three all-age schools had between 100 and 249 students, while one had an enrollment of between 250 and 499 students. Data pertaining to size of school were collapsed into three groupings for further analysis. These were: (1) schools with fewer than 500 students; (2) schools with 500 to 999 students; and (3) schools with 1000 or more students.

Table 13

Teacher Respondents Classified by Size of Schools

Number of Students	Under 100	100-249	250-499	500-749	750-999	1000-1249	1250-1499	1500-1749	1750 or more	Total
Primary										
New Providence	0	0	4	6	5	0	4	0	0	19
Family Islands	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Junior Secondary										
New Providence	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	0	0	4
Family Islands	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Senior Secondary										
New Providence	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
All-Age										
Family Islands	3	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	8
Special										
New Providence	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Total	4	4	8	6	6	2	5	1	1	37
Percentage	11	11	22	16	16	5	13	3	3	100

Characteristics of Respondents: Supervisors

Twenty-four of the responding supervisors were working in schools in New Providence, while the remaining seven had been assigned to schools throughout the Family Islands. The overall distribution of these respondents by type and location of schools was shown in Table 14.

Table 14

Distribution of Responding Supervisors

Location of School	New Providence		Family Islands		Total	
	Possible	Actual	Possible	Actual	Possible	Actual
Primary	17[a]	17	3[b]	1	20	18
Junior Secondary	4	4	1	1	5	5
Junior/ Senior Secondary	0	0	1	1	1	1
Senior Secondary	2	2	1	0	3	2
All-Age	0	0	14[b]	4	14	4
Special	1	1	0	0	1	1
Total	24	24	20	7	44	31
Percentage Returns		100		35		70

[a] 2 New Providence Principals declined to participate

[b] 3 Family Island teachers did not pass questionnaires on to their Principals

Sex and age of supervisors. Of the thirty-one responding supervisors, fourteen were male and seventeen were female. All seven Family Island supervisors were men. In New Providence, responses were received from seventeen women and seven men in supervisory positions. Eighteen responses were obtained from supervisors aged forty to forty-nine years, and three from supervisors between the ages of fifty and fifty-nine. There were six supervisors in the age group thirty to thirty-nine, and the remaining four were under thirty years of age. Table 15 presents the distribution of respondents in New Providence and the Family Islands according to these variables. For subsequent analysis, these data were collapsed into two groups: responses received from supervisors under forty years of age, and those received from supervisors forty years old or more.

Table 15

Supervisors Classified by Sex and Age

	20 - 29 Years	30 - 39 Years	40 - 49 Years	50 - 59 Years	Total
Male					
New Providence	0	2	5	0	7
Family Islands	1	2	1	3	7
Female					
New Providence	3	2	12	0	17
Total	4	6	18	3	31
Percentage	13	19	58	10	100

Years of teaching experience. No supervisor who participated in this study possessed less than five years of teaching experience. The majority of responses were received from individuals who had been teaching twenty-five to twenty-nine years. Five respondents had been in the field between twenty and twenty-four years, while nine supervisors had experience ranging from five to nineteen years. There were, in addition, two supervisors who had been teaching for more than thirty years. One supervisor did not respond to this item.

Table 16 presents the distribution of respondents according to this variable. Since the numbers in the various cells were small, for the purposes of further data analysis, respondents were considered in three groups: those with 5 to 14 years of experience, those with 15 to 24 years of experience, and those with 25 years of experience or more.

Table 16

Responding Supervisors Classified by Teaching Experience

	5 - 9 Years	10-14 Years	14-19 Years	20-24 Years	25-29 Years	30-39 Years	Total
Male	1	2	2	0	8	1	14
Female	2	1	1	5	6	1	16
Total	3	3	3	5	14	2	30[a]
Percentage	10	10	10	16	47	7	100

[a] One supervisor did not respond to this item

Current Positions. As can be seen in Table 17, twenty-six of the thirty-one supervisors participating in this study were principals. Four others were department heads, while one was a team leader in an open-area primary school.

Table 17

Responding Supervisors Classified by Current Positions

	Principal	Department Head	Other	Total
Primary				
New Providence	16	0	1	17
Family Islands	1	0	0	1
Junior Secondary				
New Providence	1	3	0	4
Family Islands	1	0	0	1
Junior/Senior Secondary				
Family Islands	1	0	0	1
Senior Secondary				
New Providence	1	1	0	2
All-Age				
Family Islands	4	0	0	4
Special				
New Providence	1	0	0	1
Total	26	4	1	31
Percentage	84	13	3	100

Supervisory experience. Table 18 presents the distribution of supervisors according to the number of years spent in their current positions. While approximately one half of the New Providence supervisors had been six years or more in their posts, no Family Island supervisor had been in a current posting for more than five years.

Table 18

Responding Supervisors Classified by Years in Present Position

	Less than 1 Year	1 - 5 Years	6 - 10 Years	More than 10 Years	No Response	Total
Principals						
New Providence	4	4	3	8	0	19
Family Islands	3	4	0	0	0	7
Department Heads						
New Providence	0	3	0	0	1	4
Other						
New Providence	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total	7	11	3	8	2	31
Percentage	23	35	10	26	6	100

Table 19 shows that two-thirds of the respondents possessed previous supervisory experience ranging from one year to ten years or more. The pattern of combined years of previous and current supervisory experience is displayed in Table 20.

Table 19

Responding Supervisors Classified by Length of Previous Supervisory Experience

	None	Less than 1 Year	1 - 5 Years	6-10 Years	More than 10 Years	No Response	Total
Principals							
New Providence	4	2	4	6	2	1	19
Family Islands	1	1	1	0	4	0	7
Department Head							
New Providence	1	0	2	0	1	0	4
Other							
New Providence	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total	6	3	7	6	7	2	31
Percentage	19	10	23	19	23	6	100

Table 20

Supervisors Classified by Combined Years of Supervisory Experience

	Years in Present Position					
	Less than 1 Year	1 - 5 Years	6-10 Years	10 + Years	No Response	Total
Previous Experience						
None	0	2	0	4	0	6
Less than 1 Year	0	1	0	2	0	3
1-5 Years	0	6	0	1	0	7
6-10 Years	4	0	2	0	0	6
10+ Years	3	3	0	0	1	7
No Response	0	0	0	1	1	2
Total	7	12	2	8	2	31

Size of schools. Twenty-two supervisors worked in schools of 500 students or more. Of the remaining nine, five Family Island principals administered schools with fewer than 250 pupils. The only New Providence school which fell into this latter category was the special school for the mentally retarded. The detailed distribution of responses pertaining to this variable is shown in Table 21. Again, because of the small numbers in many of the cells, for purposes of subsequent data analysis, this information was considered according to three major groupings: schools of fewer than 500 students; schools with

Table 21

Responding Supervisors Classified by Size of Schools

Number of Students	Under 100	100-249	250-499	500-749	750-999	1000-1249	1250-1499	1500-1749	1750 +	Total
Primary										
New Providence	0	0	2	6	5	0	4	0	0	17
Family Islands	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Junior Secondary										
New Providence	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	0	0	4
Family Islands	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Junior/Senior Secondary										
Family Islands	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Senior Secondary										
New Providence	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
All-Age										
Family Islands	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
Special										
New Providence	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Total	1	5	3	6	6	2	5	1	2	31
Percentage	3	16	10	19	19	7	16	3	7	100

500 to 999 students; and schools with 1000 students or more.

Treatment and Analysis of Data

1. Questionnaire Responses. Numerical data from completed questionnaires were coded on data processing cards for computer analysis. These data were analyzed initially to determine the frequencies and percentage distribution of responses received on items in Parts I and II of the research instruments. Data pertaining to personal and demographic variables were cross-tabulated to determine the extent to which such factors appeared to influence responses received. As the total population of potential respondents had been surveyed in this study, it was not considered to be appropriate to employ any tests of inferential statistics.

Responses to open-ended questions in both teachers' and supervisors' questionnaires were scrutinized carefully to determine whether any patterns of response might be discerned. These data were used to illuminate further the perceptions expressed in numerical form on the rating scales that formed Part II of the questionnaires. Wherever quotations from such responses were used these were edited if necessary.

2. Interviews. The interviews conducted in this study basically included three types of questions: (1) those which elicited straightforward factual information; (2) those which sought general and specific assessments of teachers' performance and preparation in relation to particular areas of teacher behaviour; and (3) those which invited respondents to express their opinions on various broad aspects of the teacher education programs under investigation. In addition, there were a variety of sub-questions by means of which the interviewer invited

respondents to expand upon responses made.

Factual information provided was summarized and categorized according to the type and location of the school in which the respondent was working. All subsequent responses were also ordered according to these groupings.

Responses which referred to the types of teacher behaviour covered in the questionnaire were aggregated according to topic, and patterns of response were noted. Synopses were prepared of explanations of specific responses and general opinions advanced, in order that any common views might be identified and considered in the light of the context in which they were expressed.

The data provided in interviews were used to provide an additional dimension to questionnaire responses received, and to reveal other areas of concern not touched upon in the written documents.

SUMMARY

In this chapter, the design of the study was outlined and the methodology employed in the conduct of the research was described.

The first section identified the major features of the research design. These included the selection of an appropriate population to serve as the source of data for the study, the choice of suitable instruments to be used in the collection of necessary data, and the establishment of the specific procedures to be followed in bringing the research to a conclusion.

Since the purpose of the study was to measure the degree to which teacher education programs at the College of The Bahamas were seen to be effective in producing practitioners who could function competently in school settings, it seemed appropriate to focus upon a group of graduates who had had some experience in the field, but who were still close enough to their training experiences to recall them with some degree of accuracy. The teachers who had graduated from the programs in 1979 were, therefore, selected as the target population of this study. These beginning teachers would be invited to assess (1) their own performance during their first-year of teaching, and (2) the value to them of their teacher preparation experiences. In order to provide another, possibly more objective view of those teachers' performance, the decision was made to include their supervisors in the schools as additional sources of data.

As the target population was scattered over a wide geographical area, the use of a mailout questionnaire seemed to be the most feasible research instrument to employ in the collection of data. Semi-structured interviews were also conducted with approximately half the members of the research populations, in order to validate questionnaire responses and to obtain additional, possibly more qualitative information concerning the programs in question.

The second section of this chapter described the steps taken to develop and validate the instruments used in the research. Details of the pilot tests conducted were presented and the results of those tests discussed.

The questionnaire which formed the major research tool for the study was designed around a list of teacher behaviours which might serve as indicators of competent performance. Those behaviours were derived from areas of skill, attitudes and knowledge which appeared to define those dimensions of teaching established as important in the conceptual framework of this study, and confirmed as such by a variety of knowledgeable educators.

The initial forms of the proposed questionnaire were pilot-tested with two groups who were considered to be reasonably similar to the main research population. These groups comprised stratified random samples drawn from 1978 and 1980 College of The Bahamas teacher education graduates. Supervisors of the 1978 graduates in the schools were also invited to participate in this phase of the research. Proposed interview guides were tested with samples drawn from each pilot group, and with a number of supervisors of the 1978 graduates.

The results of the pilot tests demonstrated:

1. that the instruments designed for use in the study were capable of eliciting the kinds of information desired;

2. that the thirty-seven teacher behaviours on which respondents were asked to rate teachers' performance and preparation were seen to be valid and acceptable indicators of teacher performance;

3. that the instruments appeared to possess a degree of temporal stability, since responses provided by teachers who had been in the field for two years did not differ significantly from those provided by teachers who had just graduated from their preparation programs; and

4. that there did not seem to be a likelihood that placing two rating scales side by side in the questionnaires would evoke a response set in the perceptions of respondents.

In the third section of the chapter, a detailed description was provided of the methodology employed in the conduct of the study. Measures taken included: securing permission to conduct the research, the identification of specific members of the target population, the actual collection and analysis of data, and the reporting of results. The pertinent characteristics of teacher and supervisor respondents were also presented at this point.

The detailed analysis of personal and demographic data provided by teachers revealed that the large majority of respondents were female, aged 20 - 29 years, and had followed a program of study leading simply to a teacher's certificate. A large proportion of teachers were, also, primary school teachers, although there were nine who had been certificated as junior secondary teachers in a variety of subjects. These teachers were working in schools which varied widely in type and size. Their training was therefore being applied in a wide range of settings which might conceivably influence their perceptions concerning their own competence or of the value of their preparation.

There was greater diversity in the age of supervisors, and there were almost equal numbers of male and female respondents. The majority were principals, as opposed to other types of supervisors, and had had extensive teaching experience. Many also had had substantial periods of supervisory experience.

Generally, New Providence supervisors tended to be female, aged 40 - 49 years, with twenty years or more of teaching experience and six years or more of supervisory experience. Family Island supervisors were all men, but of two types: quite young (between 20 and 39 years of age) with between five and nineteen years of teaching experience, and one to ten years in a supervisory position; (2) quite mature (40 years of age or more), with upwards of twenty years of teaching experience, and ten years or more in supervisory positions.

All supervisors were assessing teachers from a position of considerable familiarity with the Bahamian school system.

In Chapter 5, the findings of the study with regard to teachers' and supervisors' perceptions concerning teacher performance are described and discussed. These findings pertain to the issues raised in the first and second research questions formulated in Chapter 1 of this dissertation.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS CONCERNING THE PERFORMANCE OF FIRST-YEAR TEACHERS

The major purpose of this study was to discover the degree to which teacher education programs in The Bahamas were perceived to be effective in providing teachers with the competence necessary for the successful performance of their teaching roles. A second purpose was to discover areas of strength and possible weaknesses in those programs. In order to fulfill those purposes, several research questions were formulated in Chapter 1 which provided the specific focus for the types of data sought.

The first research question was related to the perceptions of first-year teachers and their supervisors concerning the performance of those teachers during their initial year of teaching after training. As a means of measuring this performance, ratings were obtained on thirty-seven items of teacher behaviour established as being important in competent teacher performance. As the second research question particularly sought to discover the extent to which respondents' perceptions appeared to be related to specific personal or situational factors, additional analyses of data were performed on the basis of several such variables. The results of these procedures are described and discussed in the present chapter.

I. TEACHERS' AND SUPERVISORS' PERCEPTIONS CONCERNING TEACHER PERFORMANCE

The first research question formulated in relation to the major purpose of the present study was the following:

> What are the perceptions of a group of first-year teachers and their supervisors concerning the performance of those teachers during their initial year of teaching after training?

Various facets of the teacher's responsibilities were delineated by the thirty-seven behaviours included in the research instruments. In order to determine which of these dimensions appeared to be most important from the perspective of the respondents in this study, an opportunity was provided, through open-ended questions, for teachers and supervisors to list which they considered to be the five most important and five least important behaviours in the context of their work. From the frequency of responses obtained for each, behaviours were ranked in order of greatest and least importance. These two rankings revealed basically similar perspectives.

Most Important Behaviours

Table 22 shows teachers' and supervisors' rankings of behaviours in order of greatest importance. These results indicate that teachers perceived the following to be the four most important behaviours: selecting appropriate subject content (#1), using the knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities (#3), motivating students to learn (#31), and diagnosing students' learning needs (#24). Three behaviours tied in rank as next in importance. These were: grouping students for instruction (#8), maintaining classroom order (#9),

Table 22

Importance of Teacher Behaviours: Teachers' and Supervisors' Perceptions

Teacher Behaviours	Ratings Based on Respondents' Identification of Five Most Important Teacher Behaviours				
	Number of Mentions: Teachers n = 37	Rank	Number of Mentions: Supervisors n = 28[1]	Rank	Overall Rank
A. Lesson Preparation					
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	13	1	11	1	1
2. Specifying instructional objectives	1	34.5*	9	4*	13.5*
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	12	2	6	10*	4
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	6	12*	7	7*	7.5*
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	1	34.5*	4	17*	26
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	4	20*	0	33*	29.5*
B. Classroom Management					
7. Arranging the classroom environment	3	27.5*	4	17*	20*
8. Grouping students for instruction	9	6*	5	12.5*	5.5*
9. Maintaining classroom order	9	6*	4	17*	7.5*
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	1	34.5*	9	4*	13.5*
11. Making efficient use of class time	3	27.5*	3	21	24*
12. Keeping accurate records	4	20*	4	17*	16.5*
C. Lesson Presentation					
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	3	27.5*	0	33*	34.5*
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	5	15*	7	7*	9.5*
15. Using Standard English appropriately	6	12*	0	33*	24*
16. Displaying enthusiasm	4	20*	2	22.5*	24*
17. Presenting information clearly	9	6*	5	12.5*	5.5*
18. Using effective questioning techniques	3	27.5*	1	25.5*	29.5*
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	3	27.5*	4	17*	20*
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	7	9*	1	25.5*	15.5*
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	1	34.5*	6	10*	20*
22. Building positively on students' ideas	3	27.5*	0	33*	34.5*
23. Using praise	4	20*	0	33*	29.5*
D. Assessment					
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	10	4	9	4*	3
25. Monitoring students' progress	2	32	1	25.5*	34.5*
26. Evaluating students' achievements	7	9*	0	33*	20*
27. Evaluating own performance	7	9*	4	17*	11
E. Interpersonal Relationships					
28. Developing positive relationships with students	5	15*	7	7*	9.5*
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	4	20*	0	33*	29.5*
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	4	20*	6	10*	13.5*
31. Motivating students to learn	11	3	10	2	2
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	5	15*	2	22.5*	20*
33. Communicating positively with parents	4	20*	0	33*	29.5*
34. Working well with other teachers	3	27.5*	1	25.5*	29.5*
35. Working well with administrative staff	3	27.5*	0	33*	34.5*
36. Working well with school support staff	0	37	1	25.5*	37
F. Professional Awareness					
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	6	12*	4	17*	13.5*

*Indicates tied ranks

[1] 3 supervisors did not respond to this question

and presenting information clearly (#17).

The five most important behaviours as perceived by supervisors were: selecting appropriate subject content (#1), motivating students to learn (#31), diagnosing students' learning needs (#24), specifying instructional objectives (#2), and taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary (#10).

When teachers' and supervisors' rankings were combined, and an overall mean ranking was obtained, the following emerged as the most important behaviours: selecting appropriate subject content (#1), motivating students to learn (#31), diagnosing students' learning needs (#24), using the knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities (#3), grouping students for instruction (#8), and presenting information clearly (#17).

Discussion. As can be seen, there is considerable overlap between the behaviours identified by teachers as being among the most important and those identified by supervisors as being most important. There are, however, certain revealing discrepancies. For example, considerable disagreement existed concerning the importance of specifying instructional objectives. This behaviour ranked fourth in importance in supervisors' list of priorities, but was mentioned only once by teachers as being important and consequently received almost their lowest ranking.

Another significant discrepancy was observed between supervisors' and teachers' views of the importance of disciplinary action (item 10). While supervisors saw this as an important aspect of the teacher's work (ranked fourth overall), teachers themselves rated it as a low-priority item (ranked 34.5). This difference in perspective may reflect a phenomenon mentioned in interviews by several supervisors -- the conviction which seemed to be held by many teachers (and parents) that disciplinary action was essentially the responsibility of the administrative staff, to whom misdemeanours should be referred. This speculation would appear to be worthy of further exploration, for, if it were indeed accurate, there might be implications for teacher effectiveness. Findings of research in teaching seem to suggest that teachers' ability to control misbehaviour within the classroom is positively related to increased pupil learning.

To some extent, however, the citing of most important behaviours appeared to have been largely an academic exercise, for many respondents indicated that they felt that all the behaviours included were important. When asked to list the five least important ones, ten teachers and ten supervisors stated that they were unable to do so, and provided no ratings at all. Others listed only one or two behaviours in this category. The list of least important behaviours was, as a consequence, not a particularly representative one. Moreover, when asked to suggest additional behaviours of importance in the work of a teacher, few respondents did so. Among those suggestions that were made, there was none which was made by more than one individual.

In sum, the opinions expressed in reference to the teacher behaviours used in this study seemed to support the validity of those items as indicators of competent teacher performance.

Teachers' Self-Ratings of Performance

Findings. Table 23 presents the frequency distribution of teachers' self-ratings of their performance on the thirty-seven teacher behaviours.

Table 23

Frequency Distribution of Teachers' Ratings of Their Performance

Teacher Behaviours	Frequency[1] 1	2	3	4	5	n	Mean	S.D.	Rank
A. Lesson Preparation									
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	0	0	13	17	6	36	3.81	.710	32.5*
2. Specifying instructional objectives	0	0	13	13	10	36	3.92	.806	26.5*
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	0	0	13	14	9	36	3.89	.785	29.5*
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	0	0	10	14	12	36	4.06	.791	13.5*
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	0	0	14	13	10	37	3.89	.809	31
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	0	3	15	8	7	33	3.58	.936	36
B. Classroom Management									
7. Arranging the classroom environment	0	0	11	14	12	37	4.03	.799	16*
8. Grouping students for instruction	0	1	9	14	12	36	4.03	.845	16*
9. Maintaining classroom order	0	0	12	14	11	37	3.97	.799	22.5*
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	0	0	12	14	11	37	3.97	.799	22.5*
11. Making efficient use of class time	0	0	13	14	10	37	3.92	.795	26.5*
12. Keeping accurate records	0	2	14	13	7	36	3.69	.856	34.5*
C. Lesson Presentation									
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	0	0	9	18	7	34	3.94	.694	24
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	0	0	8	19	9	36	4.03	.696	16*
15. Using Standard English appropriately	0	0	10	14	12	36	4.06	.791	13.5*
16. Displaying enthusiasm	0	0	5	19	12	36	4.19	.668	10
17. Presenting information clearly	0	0	4	23	10	37	4.16	.602	11
18. Using effective questioning techniques	0	0	11	14	11	36	4.00	.793	19.5*
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	0	1	14	16	5	36	3.69	.749	34.5*
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	0	0	12	16	9	37	3.92	.759	26.5*
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	0	0	4	17	15	36	4.31	.668	7
22. Building positively on students' ideas	0	0	7	20	7	34	4.00	.651	19.5*
23. Using praise	0	0	6	10	19	35	4.37	.770	6
D. Assessment									
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	0	0	13	17	6	36	3.81	.710	32.5*
25. Monitoring students' progress	0	1	9	18	8	36	3.92	.770	26.5*
26. Evaluating students' achievements	0	0	10	16	10	36	4.00	.756	19.5*
27. Evaluating own performance	0	0	14	12	10	36	3.89	.820	29.5*
E. Interpersonal Relationships									
28. Developing positive relationships with students	0	0	3	15	18	36	4.42	.649	3.5*
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	0	0	2	15	20	37	4.49	.607	1.5*
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	0	0	1	16	18	35	4.49	.562	1.5*
31. Motivating students to learn	0	0	8	10	18	36	4.28	.815	9
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	0	0	5	12	19	36	4.39	.728	5
33. Communicating positively with parents	0	5	13	11	7	36	3.56	.969	37
34. Working well with other teachers	0	0	7	12	18	37	4.30	.777	8
35. Working well with administrative staff	0	1	7	15	12	35	4.09	.818	12
36. Working well with school support staff	0	0	11	12	11	34	4.00	.816	19.5*
F. Professional Awareness									
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	0	0	6	9	21	36	4.42	.770	3.5*

*Indicates tied ranks

[1] The categories of response on this scale were: 1 = Very Poorly; 2 = Poorly; 3 = Adequately, 4 = Well; 5 = Very Well

Raw frequencies indicate that the categories of response most often used by teachers were 3 (adequately) and 4 (well). In relation to certain items, notably those referring to teachers' interactions with students, fairly extensive use was made of the category 5 (very well). However, very few teachers made use of category 2 (poorly) to describe their performance, and in no instance was category 1 (very poorly) employed.

On twenty-one of the thirty-seven items, teachers' mean ratings of their performance fell at points between 4 (well) and 5 (very well) on the five-point scale. For the remaining sixteen items, teachers' mean ratings fell between 3 (adequately) and 4 (well) on the scale.

The three groups of behaviours in which teachers awarded consistently high ratings were: lesson presentation, interpersonal relationships and professional awareness. With regard to certain aspects of lesson presentation, only three behaviours were awarded mean ratings lower than 4 on the five-point scale. These were: item 13, approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner (mean = 3.94); item 20, individualizing instruction when necessary (mean = 3.92); and item 19, using a variety of instructional techniques (mean = 3.69). Highest ratings in this group were assigned to item 23, using praise (mean = 4.37); and item 21, encouraging students to participate in class (mean = 4.31). Teachers' performance on the behaviour in this group which was ranked among the six most important (#17, presenting information clearly), was awarded a mean rating of 4.16 and placed eleventh in the overall ranking of teacher proficiency.

In the area of interpersonal relationships, teacher performance on all behaviours but one was assessed at points between 4 (well) and 5 (very well) on the five-point scale. The one exception was item 33, communicating positively with parents, which received an overall mean rating of 3.56. Behaviours which were awarded highest ratings in this group were items 29 and 30, displaying warmth and caring for students, and displaying acceptance of students as individuals, which were assigned ratings of 4.49 in each instance, and item 28, developing positive relationships with students, (mean = 4.42). On item 31 (motivating students to learn) which placed second in the overall ranking of importance, teachers awarded their performance a mean rating of 4.28 (ninth in the rank order of teacher proficiency).

Other items in this group which received particularly high ratings were number 32, encouraging students to develop self-respect (mean = 4.39), and number 34, working well with other teachers, (mean = 4.30).

The one item which was included under the heading of professional awareness, displaying concern for continuing professional development, ranked 3.5 in teachers' overall assessment of their performance, being assigned a mean rating of 4.42.

Relatively lower ratings were assigned to behaviours in other categories, with the areas of lesson preparation and assessment eliciting lowest overall scores. Behaviours associated with classroom management were awarded ratings which placed them near the midway point in the overall ranking of teachers' assessment of their performance.

Only one behaviour in the category of lesson preparation received a rating higher than 4.00 on the five-point scale. This was number 4, selecting appropriate teaching materials (mean = 4.06). The lowest mean rating (3.58) was ascribed to number 6, using community resources to enhance students' learning experiences. Two behaviours in this group were among those considered to be most important. These were number 1, *selecting appropriate subject content*, and number 3, *using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities*. Teachers' performance on these two items was assessed at 3.81 and 3.89 respectively, which ratings ranked 32.5 and 29.5 respectively in the overall ranking of teacher performance.

The four behaviours which delineated aspects of assessment included one which was considered by both teachers and supervisors to be among the most important. This was number 24, *diagnosing students' learning needs*, ranked third in importance overall. Teachers' mean rating of their performance on this behaviour was 3.81 (32.5 in the overall ranking). The remaining three items in this category received higher ratings, but only one, number 26, *evaluating students' achievements*, received a mean rating of 4.00 on the five-point scale. The other two, *monitoring students' progress* (number 25), and *evaluating own performance* (number 27), were assigned mean ratings of 3.92 and 3.89 respectively.

Most dimensions of classroom management received mean ratings which clustered around the 4.00 mark on the scale. Two of these, number 7, *arranging the classroom environment*, and number 8, *grouping students for instruction*, were awarded means of 4.03. Numbers 9 and 10, *maintaining classroom order* and *taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary*, both received ratings of 3.97. Number 11, *making efficient use of class time*, was assigned a rating that was only slightly lower (mean = 3.92). In this group of behaviours, the lowest rating (mean = 3.69) was awarded to number 12, *keeping accurate records*.

Discussion. Generally, the numerical ratings provided indicated that teachers viewed themselves as performing competently in all the aspects of teacher behaviour measured in this study. However, certain factors emerge which appear worthy of comment. First, the consistency with which high ratings were assigned to behaviours which refer to teachers' direct interaction with students, both in the areas of lesson presentation and in interpersonal relationships, suggests that teachers judge particularly positively their ability to emphathize with students and to communicate meaningfully with them. This view was confirmed in interviews by teachers, who described with enthusiasm their relationships with their students and their aspirations for them.

Teachers appeared, on the other hand, to feel less confidence in their ability to diagnose students' learning needs, and many stated in interviews that they felt they needed better diagnostic skills to enable them to focus their teaching more effectively. Further, it may be speculated that the relatively less competent performance that teachers perceived in certain other behaviours may be associated with this essential weakness. Teachers' perceptions of their lack of skill in diagnosing the needs of students might, conceivably, be related to their less favourable view of their ability to individualize instruction, select appropriate subject content, and plan teaching activities. These findings would seem to be significant since three of these behaviours (selecting appropriate subject content, using the knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities and diagnosing students' learning needs) were among those judged to be most important.

Teachers' ratings demonstrated that they felt they possessed a greater degree of proficiency in the remaining items which were ranked among the six most important, but they were not the behaviours in which teachers perceived their performance to be best. Indeed, some of teachers' highest ratings were awarded to items judged to be of only moderate (and, in some cases, low) importance. An example of this may be seen with regard to number 29, displaying warmth and caring for students. Teachers assigned one of their top ratings (mean = 4.49) to this behaviour which was ranked only 29.5 in overall importance. Another behaviour which achieved this same rank in importance, number 23, using praise, was awarded teachers' sixth highest mean rating (4.37).

Although there were instances of greater congruence between teachers' assessment of their performance and the level of importance of the behaviours concerned, in general teachers appeared to perceive that they were doing best in areas of lesser importance, while experiencing some difficulty in several of the more important teacher behaviours.

Consciousness of these areas of relative weakness in their professional competence led teachers to express in their interviews the sense of need for continuing professional development which was reflected in their high rating of their performance in this item of behaviour.

Supervisors' Ratings of Teacher Performance

Findings. Table 24 presents the frequency distribution of supervisors' ratings of teacher performance. The categories of response most frequently used by supervisors were 3 (adequately) and

Table 24

Frequency Distribution of Supervisors' Ratings of Teachers' Performance

	1	2	3	4	5	n	Mean	S.D.	Rank
A. Lesson Preparation									
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	0	0	13	15	3	31	3.68	.653	14
2. Specifying instructional objectives	0	0	17	13	1	31	3.48	.570	27.5*
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	0	2	13	16	0	31	3.45	.624	30
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	0	2	15	9	4	30	3.50	.820	25*
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	0	2	8	6	4	20	3.60	.940	18.5*
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	0	6	14	9	0	29	3.10	.704	35
B. Classroom Management									
7. Arranging the classroom environment	0	1	12	11	6	30	3.73	.828	9.5*
8. Grouping students for instruction	0	3	11	12	4	30	3.57	.858	21
9. Maintaining classroom order	0	1	15	8	6	30	3.63	.850	15
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	0	0	16	10	4	30	3.60	.724	18.5*
11. Making efficient use of class time	0	1	11	13	4	29	3.69	.761	12.5*
12. Keeping accurate records	0	0	12	15	4	31	3.74	.682	8
C. Lesson Presentation									
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	0	2	12	10	5	29	3.62	.862	16
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	0	0	14	10	5	29	3.69	.761	12.5*
15. Using Standard English appropriately	0	0	11	14	5	30	3.80	.714	6.5*
16. Displaying enthusiasm	0	0	12	9	7	28	3.82	.819	5
17. Presenting information clearly	0	0	13	13	4	30	3.70	.702	11
18. Using effective questioning techniques	0	5	13	11	2	29	3.21	.726	34
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	0	5	15	6	3	29	3.24	.872	33
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	0	4	14	10	2	30	3.33	.802	32
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	0	0	13	12	5	30	3.73	.740	9.5*
22. Building positively on students' ideas	0	2	12	14	1	29	3.48	.688	27.5*
23. Using praise	0	2	14	12	2	30	3.47	.730	29
D. Assessment									
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	0	8	14	6	1	29	3.00	.802	36
25. Monitoring students' progress	0	1	16	10	3	30	3.50	.731	25*
26. Evaluating students' achievements	0	2	14	11	3	30	3.50	.777	25*
27. Evaluating own performance	0	8	13	7	0	28	2.96	.744	37
E. Interpersonal Relationships									
28. Developing positive relationships with students	0	0	12	12	7	31	3.84	.779	4
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	0	3	7	13	7	30	3.80	.925	6.5*
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	0	3	10	12	4	29	3.59	.867	20
31. Motivating students to learn	0	2	14	12	3	31	3.52	.769	22.5*
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	0	1	16	8	4	29	3.52	.785	22.5*
33. Communicating positively with parents	0	1	17	9	2	29	3.41	.682	31
34. Working well with other teachers	0	0	4	14	13	31	4.29	.693	2
35. Working well with administrative staff	0	0	3	14	12	29	4.31	.660	1
36. Working well with school support staff	0	0	6	14	9	29	4.10	.724	3
F. Professional Awareness									
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	0	1	13	10	4	28	3.61	.786	17

[1] The categories of response on this scale were: 1 = Very Poorly, 2 = Poorly; 3 = Adequate, 4 = Well; 5 = Very Well

*Indicates tied ranks

4 (well). More limited use was made of the categories 2 (poorly) and 5 (very well), but in no instance did supervisors employ category 1 (very poorly) to describe teachers' performance.

Mean ratings falling between 4 (well) and 5 (very well) were awarded to three of the thirty-seven items. These were all behaviours which referred to teachers' relationships with other school personnel. All other ratings but one fell between the points 3 (adequately) and 4 (well) on the five-point scale. That one behaviour, number 27, evaluating own performance, was assigned a mean rating of 2.96.

Supervisors awarded highest ratings for teachers' performance in the area of interpersonal relationships. Five of supervisors' highest scores are found in this category. Behaviours for which these were provided were: number 35, working well with administrative staff (mean = 4.31), number 34, working well with other teachers (mean = 4.29), and number 36, working well with school support staff (mean = 4.10), number 28, developing positive relationships with students (mean = 3.84), and number 29, displaying warmth and caring for students (mean = 3.80). Teachers' performance on these behaviours were placed 1, 2, 3, 4, and 6.5 in supervisors' overall mean ranking of teacher proficiency.

The other four items in this category were rated somewhat lower, including the important one of motivating students to learn (#31), for which supervisors provided a mean rating of 3.52 (rank = 22.5).

The next highest overall ratings by supervisors occurred in the area of lesson presentation. The mean ratings awarded three of the behaviours in this group were among supervisors' ten highest. Items on which these were found were: number 16, displaying enthusiasm, (mean = 3.82, rank = 5), number 15, using Standard English appropriately (mean = 3.80, rank = 6.5), and number 21, encouraging students to participate in class (mean = 3.73, rank = 9.5). Supervisors assigned a mean rating of 3.70 to teachers' performance in number 17, presenting information clearly (ranked 5.5 in overall importance). In this group, supervisors' lowest ratings were provided for number 18, using effective questioning techniques (mean = 3.21), number 19, using a variety of instructional techniques (mean = 3.24), and individualizing instruction when necessary (mean = 3.33).

All items of teacher behaviour in the area of classroom management were awarded ratings higher than 3.50, where 3 represents adequately and 4 represents well on the five-point scale. Highest ratings in the group were assigned to numbers 12, keeping accurate records, (mean = 3.74), and 7, arranging the learning environment (mean = 3.73). Number 8, grouping students for instruction, (ranked 5.5 in overall importance) received the lowest rating in this category of behaviours: mean = 3.57.

In the area of lesson preparation, teachers' performance tended generally to elicit lower assessments than behaviours mentioned previously. The highest rating in this group (mean = 3.68) was awarded to item 1, selecting appropriate subject content. This behaviour was considered to be the most important of all by teachers and supervisors, but supervisors' rating placed teachers' performance in this area fourteenth in the overall ranking of teacher proficiency. Teachers' performance in item 3, using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities, which was ranked fourth in overall importance, was rated at 3.45 (rank = 30).

Two of the lowest ratings provided by supervisors were assigned to behaviours in the category of assessment. Teachers' ability to evaluate their own performance was awarded the lowest mean rating of all: 2.96. The behaviour which was ranked third in overall importance, number 24, diagnosing students' learning needs, was rated just slightly higher (mean = 3.00). Both of the other two behaviours in this group were rated at 3.50.

Supervisors rated teachers' concern for continuing professional development (#37) at 3.50.

Discussion. Supervisors' overall ratings indicated that, in general, they appeared to be satisfied with the performance of the first-year teachers in the schools. Like teachers themselves, they perceived teachers' strongest performance to be occurring in dimensions of interpersonal relationships and in certain aspects of lesson presentation. Supervisors were particularly impressed with teachers' ability to relate positively with their colleagues in the school setting. This was confirmed by supervisors in interviews when they also praised teachers' responsible and professional attitudes and their willingness to accept advice and guidance. Teachers' enthusiasm for teaching was also commended, and this was reflected in the favourable rating awarded by supervisors to this item.

While teachers' performance in several aspects of lesson presentation were positively viewed, considerably lower ratings were ascribed to the three behaviours which referred to particular methodological strategies of questioning, varying teaching techniques and individualizing instruction. These perceptions are somewhat disturbing since these are all behaviours which, research has suggested, are positively related to increased student learning.

Supervisors' less favourable rating of teachers' proficiency in individualizing instruction may, again, reflect their views of teachers' comparative weakness in *diagnosing students' learning needs*. This weakness was confirmed in interviews by supervisors, who judged the whole area of assessment to be an area which required strengthening. Of particular interest in the context of the present study is supervisors' assessment of teachers' ability to evaluate their own performance: they awarded this item of behaviour their lowest rating of all.

To determine the degree to which this appears to be an accurate judgment of teachers' ability in this respect, it is instructive to compare the ratings provided by teachers and supervisors in this study.

Comparison of Teachers' and Supervisors' Ratings

Table 25 presents the comparative overall mean ratings of teachers and supervisors for the thirty-seven behaviours. These data show that teachers' self-ratings of their performance were higher than those of supervisors on thirty-three of the thirty-seven behaviours. In one instance, item 34, *working well with other teachers*, the overall mean ratings of teachers and supervisors were the same: 4.29. Supervisors' ratings surpassed those of teachers in three instances. These were: item 12, *keeping accurate records*; item 35, *working well with administrative staff*; and item 36, *working well with school support staff*. However, as Table 25 also shows, the differences between ratings in these cases were not large.

By contrast, many of the discrepancies observed between the two

Table 25

Comparison of Teachers' and Supervisors' Ratings of Teacher Performance

Teacher Behaviours	Overall Ranking in Importance	Overall Mean of Teachers' Ratings	Rank	Overall Mean of Supervisors' Ratings	Rank	Discrepancy
A. Lesson Preparation						
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	3.81	32.5*	3.68	14	.13
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	3.92	26.5*	3.48	27.5*	.44
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	3.89	30*	3.45	30	.44
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	4.06	13.5*	3.50	25*	.56
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	3.89	30	3.60	18.5*	.29
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	3.58	36	3.10	35	.48
B. Classroom Management						
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	4.03	16*	3.73	9.5*	.30
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	4.03	16*	3.57	21	.46
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	3.97	22.5*	3.63	15	.34
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	3.97	22.5*	3.60	18.5*	.37
11. Making efficient use of class time	24*	3.92	26.5*	3.69	12.5*	.23
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	3.69	34.5*	3.74	8	-.05
C. Lesson Presentation						
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	3.94	24	3.62	16	.32
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	4.03	16	3.69	12.5*	.34
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	4.06	13.5*	3.80	6.5*	.26
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	4.19	10	3.82	5	.37
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	4.16	11	3.70	11	.46
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	4.00	19.5*	3.21	34	.79
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20*	3.69	34.5*	3.24	33	.45
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16*	3.92	26.5*	3.33	32	.59
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.31	7	3.73	9.5*	.58
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	4.00	19.5*	3.48	27.5*	.52
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.37	6*	3.47	29	.90
D. Assessment						
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	3.81	32.5*	3.00	36	.81
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	3.92	26.5*	3.50	25*	.42
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	4.00	19.5*	3.50	25*	.50
27. Evaluating own performance	11	3.89	29.5*	2.96	37	.93
E. Interpersonal Relationships						
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.42	3.5*	3.84	4	.58
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.49	1.5*	3.80	6.5*	.69
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.49	1.5*	3.59	20	.90
31. Motivating students to learn	2	4.28	9	3.52	22.5*	.76
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	4.39	5	3.52	22.5*	.87
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.56	37	3.41	31	.15
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	4.29	8	4.29	2	.00
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	4.09	12	4.31	1	-.22
36. Working well with school support staff	37	4.00	19.5*	4.10	3	-.10
F. Professional Awareness						
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.42	3.5*	3.61	17	.81

*Indicated tied ranks

Underlining indicates the higher of mean ratings compared

sets of scores were substantial when teachers' ratings were higher. Teachers' mean rating of their ability to evaluate their own performance, for example, at 3.89 was .93 higher than supervisors' mean of 2.96. Similarly large differences are observed in relation to teachers' use of praise and their warmth and caring for students (discrepancy in each instance = .90). In twelve other instances, discrepancies of .50 or more were obtained. Two of these occurred in reference to behaviours judged to be among the most important: number 24, diagnosing students' learning needs (discrepancy = .81), and number 31, motivating students to learn (discrepancy = .76).

Other items ranked high in overall importance also received markedly higher ratings from teachers than from supervisors. These were item 3, using the knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities (discrepancy = .44), item 8, grouping students for instruction (discrepancy = .46), and presenting information clearly (discrepancy = .46). The highest level of agreement between teachers' and supervisors' ratings occurred in relation to item 1, selecting appropriate subject content (discrepancy = .13).

Discussion. It is interesting to note that those aspects of teacher performance where supervisors' ratings were the same as or higher than those of teachers were behaviours which focused upon teachers' ability to get along with colleagues in the school and to perform administrative duties -- areas of teacher competence for which, teachers claimed in their interviews, they had received little preparation in their teacher education programs. The consistently lower ratings by supervisors in all other cases are disturbing, though, perhaps, expected, since according to Mouly (1970:302), an individual reporting on himself was likely to show himself as he would like to be seen rather than as he really was. However, it might be speculated in the context of the present research, that a more far-reaching issue may be involved: the actual criteria that are being employed by both groups in making their judgments. For example, the large discrepancy which exists between teachers' and supervisors' perceptions of teacher performance in praising students and displaying warmth towards them may spring from a fundamentally different interpretation of what is appropriate in this regard. This speculation would seem to be supported by the interview comments of several supervisors who claimed that beginning teachers were too familiar with students and did not establish their authority sufficiently. Teachers, on the other hand, valued the fact that students looked upon them as their friends.

The marked differences between the perceptions of teachers and supervisors throw into sharp relief the basic disagreement between the two groups concerning teachers' ability to evaluate their own performance. In an interview, one supervisor articulated succinctly this difference of perspective. He maintained: "What they call evaluation is not." This becomes a matter of particular concern since in their interviews teachers claimed that self-assessment had been strongly stressed in their preparation programs.

A possible conclusion which might be drawn from the findings, then, is that teachers and their supervisors are measuring performance according to very different standards. On the other hand, another possible interpretation of the findings might be that the extent of supervisors' actual observation of teachers' performance could be open to question. However, the impression given by many supervisors interviewed (particularly in schools in the capital) was that, during teachers' first year in the schools, considerable effort was made to oversee their performance and to offer guidance. This degree of support was not always available in Family Island schools where many principals were themselves full-time teachers.

In any event, the divergence between teachers' and supervisors' views appear to indicate a need for investigation into the criteria that are being applied by each group.

II. TEACHERS' AND SUPERVISORS' PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHER PERFORMANCE BASED ON SIGNIFICANT VARIABLES

In this section, the perceptions of respondents with regard to teacher performance are examined in the light of certain significant variables. This undertaking attempts to address issues raised in the second research question which asked:

> To what extent are the perceptions of first-year teachers concerning their performance related to (i) differences in grade level, (ii) personal variables, (iii) demographic variables, or (iv) experience in teaching prior to professional training?

Teachers' responses were subjected to additional analysis on the basis of the following variables: type, level, location and size of schools in which respondents were working: type of program respondents had followed at college; type of teacher certification they had received; respondents' experience in teaching prior to professional training. As the large majority of teachers were female, and in the same age group, analysis on the basis of these variables did not seem likely to provide meaningful insights. It was therefore not undertaken.

Scrutiny of the results of these additional analyses revealed that specific perspectives in teachers' responses were most consistently associated with the type of school in which respondents were teaching.

Teachers' Perceptions of Performance Based on Type of School

Because of the small numbers occurring in some cells, for the purposes of further analyses of data, the five categories of school type provided initially in questionnaires were reduced to three broad groupings: primary, secondary, and all-age schools. These groupings also incorporated, to a large extent, certain demographic factors, for the bulk of Family Island schools were of the all-age variety, and the size of schools tended in most cases to be related to the type of school involved. All secondary schools were large, with enrollments of 1000 students or more; all Family Island all-age schools were small, with enrollments of 500 students or fewer; the majority of New Providence primary schools had enrollments of between 400 and 999 students. The only exception to this rule was to be found in the case of one open-area primary school which had an enrollment of more than 1000 students. Four respondents in this study were working in that school.

For the most part, school groupings also encompassed the differences between teachers who had received primary and junior secondary teacher certification, for, with few exceptions, teachers who had received primary certification were working in primary or all-age schools, while teachers with junior secondary certification were almost all working in secondary schools.

Further analyses of responses on the basis of school type, then, provided information which covered a variety of perspectives.

Findings. Table 26 presents the results of additional analyses of data based on the type of school in which respondents were working. Examination of these results reveals that in sixteen instances, primary school teachers rated their performance higher than did their colleagues in other schools, sometimes substantially so. All-age school teachers rated their performance highest in fourteen cases, and junior secondary teachers provided the highest ratings for three behaviours. There were two items for which junior secondary and all-age school teachers provided identical mean ratings which were slightly higher than those provided by primary school teachers. These were: item 13, approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner (means = 4.00 as opposed to mean = 3.90), and item 21, encouraging students to participate in class (means = 4.33 versus mean = 4.29).

In one instance, junior secondary and primary teachers provided the same mean rating which was just somewhat higher than that of all-age teachers. This was for number 12, keeping accurate records (means = 3.71 versus 3.62). The identical mean ratings of primary and all-age teachers for item 11, making efficient use of class time (mean = 4.00) was substantially higher than junior secondary teachers' mean rating of 3.57 for the same item.

In addition to the relatively close ratings provided for items 12, 13 and 21, mentioned above, there were several other instances of similarity in the perceptions of all three groups of teachers. On item 1, selecting appropriate subject content, the mean ratings

Table 26

Teachers' Ratings of Their Performance Classified by Type of School

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Mean Rating Primary School Teachers n = 21	Rank	Mean Rating Junior Secondary School Teachers n = 7	Rank	Mean Rating All-Age School Teachers n = 9	Rank
A. Lesson Preparation							
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	3.81	30.5*	3.67	24*	3.89	26*
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	4.00	25.5*	3.67	24*	3.89	26*
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	3.76	32.5*	3.67	24*	4.33	8.5*
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	4.29	9.5*	3.67	24*	3.78	31.5*
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	4.05	21.5*	3.57	31*	3.78	31.5*
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	3.50	36	3.50	35*	3.86	29*
B. Classroom Management							
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	3.95	27.5*	3.86	14*	4.33	8.5*
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	4.05	21.5*	3.17	37	4.56	2.5*
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	4.24	12.5*	3.57	31*	3.67	35
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	4.14	15	3.71	18.5*	3.78	31.5*
11. Making efficient use of class time	24*	4.00	25.5*	3.57	31*	4.00	21.5*
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	3.71	34	3.71	18.5*	3.62	37
C. Lesson Presentation							
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	3.90	29	4.00	10.5*	4.00	21.5*
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	4.14	15*	3.57	31*	4.12	16.5*
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	4.05	21.5*	3.86	14*	4.25	11.5*
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	4.14	15*	4.00	10.5*	4.50	4
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	4.24	12.5*	3.86	14*	4.22	14
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	4.05	21.5*	3.86	14*	4.00	21.5*
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20	3.62	35	3.86	14*	3.75	34
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16*	4.09	17.5*	3.57	31*	3.78	31.5*
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.29	9.5*	4.33	4*	4.33	8.5*
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	3.95	27.5*	4.17	7*	4.00	21.5*
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.48	4	4.33	4*	4.12	16.5*
D. Assessment							
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	3.76	32.5*	3.50	35*	4.11	18.5*
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	4.05	21.5*	3.50	35*	3.89	26*
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	4.05	21.5*	3.67	24*	4.11	18.5*
27. Evaluating own performance	11	3.81	30.5*	3.67	24*	4.22	14*
E. Interpersonal Relationships							
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.48	4*	4.17	7*	4.44	5.5*
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.48	4*	4.57	1	4.44	5.5*
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.43	6.5*	4.50	2	4.62	1
31. Motivating students to learn	2	4.43	6.5*	3.67	24*	4.33	8.5*
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	4.52	1.5*	4.17	7*	4.22	14*
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.38	37	3.67	24*	3.89	26*
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	4.52	1.5*	4.14	9	3.89	26*
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	4.09	17.5*	3.83	17	4.25	11.5*
36. Working well with school support staff	37	4.25	11	3.67	24*	3.62	36.5*
F. Professional Awareness							
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.38	8	4.33	4*	4.56	2.5*

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates highest of mean ratings compared provided by all-age primary and junior secondary teachers were, respectively, 3.89, 3.81 and 3.67. With regard to the two presentation skills of questioning and varying teaching techniques, the views of all three groups differed relatively little. The ratings provided by primary, all-age and secondary teachers for their performance in using effective questioning techniques were 4.05, 4.00 and 3.86 respectively. Junior secondary teachers' rating of 3.86 for their performance in using a variety of instructional techniques was somewhat higher than the ratings of all-age teachers (mean = 3.75) and primary teachers (mean = 3.62).

Small discrepancies were observed between the mean ratings provided by the three groups of teachers for items 22, 29 and 30, all of which referred to teachers' interactions with students. Substantial differences were observed, however, among ratings assigned by the three groups to other behaviours. In the area of lesson preparation, for example, while primary school teachers rated their performance in specifying objectives only slightly higher than did all-age school teachers (means = 4.00 and 3.89 respectively), junior secondary teachers rated their performance considerably lower than both (mean = 3.67). Further, all-age school teachers' assessment of their ability to apply learning theories when planning teaching activities (item 3) was markedly higher than that of the other two groups. Their mean rating for this item was 4.33, while that of primary teachers was 3.76 and that of junior secondary teachers was 3.67. All-age school teachers also provided a higher rating (mean = 3.86) of their use of community resources in their teaching, than did either primary or junior secondary school teachers (means in both instances = 3.50).

For their part, primary teachers assigned considerably higher ratings to their performance in selecting teaching materials and preparing aids (means = 4.29 and 4.05) than did all-age school teachers (mean = 3.78 in both cases) or junior secondary teachers (means = 3.67 and 3.57 respectively).

In behaviours related to classroom management, primary school teachers rated their performance higher than their colleagues on items 9, maintaining classroom order (mean = 4.24) and 10, taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary (mean = 4.14). The mean ratings of all-age school teachers for the same behaviours were 3.67 and 3.78 respectively, and those of junior secondary teachers were 3.57 and 3.71.

All-age school teachers provided mean ratings (4.33 and 4.56) which were significantly higher than those of their colleagues in relation to items 7, arranging the classroom environment, and 8, grouping students for instruction. Primary school teachers' ratings for these same items were 3.95 and 4.05 respectively, and those of junior secondary teachers were 3.86 and 3.17.

Allusion was made earlier to those items of lesson presentation where ratings were similar. The items of lesson presentation for which the greatest diversity of perceptions were observed were numbers 14, displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter, 16, displaying enthusiasm, 17, presenting information clearly, and 20, individualizing instruction when necessary. In each instance, junior secondary teachers' ratings were substantially lower than those provided by either primary or all-age teachers.

In items referring to aspects of assessment, junior secondary teachers rated their performance considerably lower than did the other two groups. This was particularly the case in relation to item 24, diagnosing students' learning needs, where junior secondary teachers' mean rating was 3.50 as compared with all-age teachers' rating of 4.11 and primary teachers' rating of 3.76. A similarly large discrepancy was observed between junior secondary teachers' rating of 3.67 for item 26 (evaluating students' achievements) and these provided by all-age and primary school teachers (4.11 and 4.05 respectively).

In the area of interpersonal relationships, junior secondary teachers assigned a lower mean rating (3.67) to their performance in motivating students to learn (#31) than did primary school teachers (mean = 4.43) or all-age school teachers (mean = 4.33). Primary school teachers rated their ability to work well with other teachers considerably higher (mean = 4.52) than did either junior secondary teachers (mean = 4.14) or all-age teachers (mean = 3.89). Primary school teachers also rated their performance in working with support staff (item 36) higher than did junior secondary or all-age school teachers.

The rating of all-age teachers on item 35, working well with administrative staff (4.25) was substantially higher than that of junior secondary teachers (mean = 3.83) and somewhat higher than that of primary teachers (mean = 4.09). Again, teachers in all-age schools provided the highest ratings (mean = 4.56) for their performance in displaying concern for continuing professional development. The ratings assigned to this behaviour by primary and junior secondary teachers were fairly close in value (4.38 and 4.33 respectively).

Discussion. A variety of factors associated with specific types of schools in which they were functioning were identified by teachers in interviews as contributing to their level of proficiency in various aspects of their work.

In the area of lesson preparation, for example, primary school teachers indicated that they sometimes had difficulty in adjusting the subject content they had studied at college to the level of children they were teaching. Further, some indicated that, in certain instances, much of the content they had covered was irrelevant to what they had to teach in the primary school curriculum, while some of the essential components of that curriculum (e.g., aspects of reading) had not been dealt with extensively enough in their preparation programs.

Another factor which these teachers saw as militating against their being as proficient in this area as they might have been was the size of the classes with which they were faced. Particularly in the case of the early grades of primary school, teachers found that preparing to meet the varying needs of forty or more students was a daunting prospect. This problem was felt particularly acutely by teachers who worked in large, open-area, urban primary schools. These teachers were faced with unique challenges: they were periodically called upon to teach, at one time, all the children of their particular learning centre -- a total usually of between 100 and 135 students. Such teachers quite freely confessed to feeling inadequate in the face of such circumstances.

Junior secondary school teachers faced preparation problems of a rather different kind. Many of these individuals were engaged in teaching subjects at a remedial level in the secondary school context. They found difficulty in deciding on suitable subject matter to use with their students and in obtaining appropriate materials to support their work. They had received little training in this area at college, and there was little specialized guidance available in schools.

The problems faced by teachers working in all-age schools were quite different again. In many instances, such teachers were faced to having to teach three or more grades together in one classroom. Within these basic groups, there were likely also to be varying levels of ability. Preparing suitable learning experiences to meet these different needs with a minimum of teaching resources, proved to be a considerable challenge for many beginning teachers. Nevertheless, most of these teachers appeared to feel that they were having a fair degree of success in meeting this challenge, and their quite favourable rating of their performance in using their knowledge of the way children learned in planning their teaching activities would seem to reflect this conviction.

In interviews, respondents from all groups identified the short supply of resources as a specific hindrance to creative lesson preparation. Almost without exception, teachers interviewed claimed that they were frequently called upon to improvise in the preparation of teaching materials and aids. While primary teachers and many all-age school teachers expressed confidence in their ability to do this, for some, particularly those teaching special subjects at the secondary level, the possibilities of improvisation were limited. For others, such as those teachers in remote Family Island settlements, the difficulty of obtaining even such basic materials as paper and glue presented constant challenges to their ingenuity.

Teachers did not, as a rule, appear to have much recourse to resources outside the school setting. There appeared to be a fairly limited interpretation on their part as to what kinds of useful resources might be found within a community. This finding would seem to suggest a possible weakness within their preparation -- its failure to make teachers sufficiently aware of the variety of sources of learning experiences which might be found outside the school setting.

The high overall ratings awarded by primary school teachers to their performance in the various aspects of classroom management reflect the confidence they expressed in their interviews. They identified few problems of discipline and felt that they had been adequately prepared to create an appropriate learning environment. However, primary school teachers working in large open-area schools encountered certain special kinds of problems. On occasions when the total group within a given centre was brought together for a common lesson, as described earlier, problems of control became acute. These teachers also indicated that, even in normal circumstances, the open situation was often distracting to students and presented special difficulties to beginning teachers. This was particularly the case since teachers' preparation in terms of classroom management had been geared toward the self-contained classroom.

Junior secondary teachers, for their part, also indicated in interviews that certain of the problems they encountered were associated with the nature of the work in which they were engaged. As pointed out, many of these teachers were involved in teaching remedial groups.

Such students tended to have short spans of concentration, and a resultant tendency to restlessness and disruptive behaviour. Where classes were large, the demands upon the management skills of teachers were considerable. One high school teacher described working with a group of forty-two low-ability students, all of whom required work of a remedial nature. Apart from the challenge of providing sufficient and appropriate material to keep such students productively engaged, certain practical, physical conditions had to be faced: with so large a class, the teacher had to deal with a constant shortage of desks, chairs and equipment, as well as with the problems of having to control a large group in a crowded space.

Prevailing physical conditions were only one of a combination of factors with which teachers in all-age schools had to deal. These teachers were often confronted, as previously mentioned, with teaching a combined group of varying grade levels, in an open area which was sometimes shared with as many as three or four other teachers. In order to function at all productively in such circumstances, teachers were obliged to learn to be very flexible and imaginative in their use of the teaching environment. This factor perhaps explains the exceptionally high ratings all-age teachers afforded their performance in arranging the classroom environment and grouping students for instruction.

In the area of lesson presentation, the relative rankings of mean ratings assigned by all three groups of teachers indicated that generally they seemed to feel quite positive about the adequacy of their performance. However the comparatively low ratings awarded by junior secondary teachers for the specific methodological skills of questioning, presenting information, using varied techniques and individualizing instruction, raise questions concerning the adequacy of their preparation in this area by comparison with that of their primary and all-age school colleagues. Further, their lower self-ratings concerning their knowledge of subject matter seemed to confirm comments made in questionnaires and in interviews that some of the subject content provided for them in their preparation programs was irrelevant to what was needed in the schools.

All teachers appeared to view quite positively their performance in involving students actively in the instructional process and affirmed this in their interviews. On these occasions, however, teachers admitted to feeling less satisfied with their success in the various aspects of the assessment process. Specifically, the less favourable view held by junior secondary teachers of their competence appeared once more to be related to the fact that several of them were engaged in remedial teaching. Interview responses clearly indicated that such teachers recognized the inadequacy of their preparation to meet the special demands associated with their jobs.

The significantly lower self-ratings of junior secondary teachers in certain aspects of interpersonal relationships also appear to be related to similar factors. This is particularly the case in relation to the motivation of students, and many junior secondary teachers admitted in interviews that they found it difficult to stimulate the interest of students of low academic ability in school work. Further, in a highly examination-oriented system, slower learners at the secondary level often became discouraged and ceased to try. The inability of some students to perceive viable career options after graduation was cited as another factor which made motivating students at this level difficult to achieve. These conditions are, clearly, to a large extent, beyond the control of the individual teachers. Nevertheless, they represent realities whose existence must be recognized and addressed during teacher preparation, if teachers are to find ways of dealing with them.

In light of the relationships which appear to exist between teachers' perceptions of their performance and situational factors in the schools, it is profitable also to examine supervisors' perceptions from a similar perspective.

Supervisors' Perceptions of Teachers' Performance Based on Type of School

Findings. Table 27 presents the results of the analysis of supervisors' responses on the basis of the type of school in which they were working. Examination of these results reveals that in thirty-five cases out of thirty-seven, all-age school supervisors provided the highest ratings of teachers' performance. Secondary school supervisors provided highest ratings for the remaining two items (#14, displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter, and #32, encouraging students to participate in class). Primary school supervisors provided the lowest ratings of the three groups for thirty of the thirty-seven behaviours.

Six items for which secondary school supervisors assigned lower ratings than their primary counterparts were: grouping students for instruction (#8), using Standard English appropriately (#15), using praise (#23), communicating positively with parents (#33), working well with other teachers (#34), and working well with school support staff (#36). The ratings of primary and junior secondary school supervisors

Table 27

Supervisors' Ratings of Teacher Performance Classified by Type of School

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Mean Rating Primary School Supervisors n = 18	Rank	Mean Rating Secondary School Supervisors n = 8	Rank	Mean Rating All-Age School Supervisors n = 5	Rank
A. Lesson Preparation							
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	3.67	5.5*	3.62	21*	3.80	29*
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	3.33	25	3.62	21*	3.80	29*
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	3.39	20	3.37	28*	3.80	29*
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	3.29	28.5*	3.62	21*	4.00	23*
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	3.00	33*	4.00	3	4.33	9
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	3.00	33*	3.14	34	3.40	37
B. Classroom Management							
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	3.53	12*	3.87	7*	4.20	15*
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	3.50	14.5*	3.29	30	4.20	15*
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	3.53	12*	3.75	15.5*	3.80	29*
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	3.53	12*	3.62	21	3.80	29*
11. Making efficient use of class time	24*	3.44	17	3.87	7*	4.20	15*
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	3.57	10	3.87	7*	4.20	15*
C. Lesson Presentation							
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	3.37	21.5*	3.75	15.5*	4.20	15*
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	3.37	21.5*	4.12	2	4.00	23*
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	3.82	4	3.62	21	4.00	23*
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	3.67	7	3.86	12*	4.40	5.5*
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	3.47	16	3.87	7*	4.20	15*
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	2.94	35	3.57	24.5*	3.60	35.5
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20*	3.00	33	3.14	34*	4.20	15*
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16*	3.12	31	3.25	31.5*	4.20	15*
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	3.59	9	3.75	15.5*	4.20	15*
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	3.35	23	3.57	24.5*	3.80	29*
23. Using praise	29.5*	3.41	18.5*	3.25	31.5*	4.00	23*
D. Assessment							
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	2.76	36	3.14	34*	3.60	35.5*
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	3.29	28.5*	3.37	28*	4.40	5.5*
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	3.29	28.5	3.37	28*	4.40	5.5*
27. Evaluating own performance	11	2.69	37	3.12	36	3.75	33.5*
E. Interpersonal Relationships							
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	3.67	5.5*	3.87	7*	4.40	5.5*
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	3.61	8	3.86	12*	4.40	5.5*
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	3.41	18.5*	3.71	18	4.00	23*
31. Motivating students to learn	2	3.33	25*	3.50	26	4.20	15*
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	3.29	28.5*	3.86	12*	3.80	29*
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.50	14.5*	3.00	37	3.75	33.5*
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	4.33	1	3.87	7*	4.80	1
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	4.25	2	4.25	1	4.60	2
36. Working well with school support staff	37	4.12	3	3.87	7*	4.40	5.5*
F. Professional Awareness							
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	3.33	25*	3.75	25*	4.20	15*

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates highest of mean ratings compared were identical for item 35, working well with administrative staff.

In terms of absolute mean values, all-age school supervisors awarded significantly higher overall ratings than did either of the other two groups. Twenty-five of their ratings were placed at 4 (well) or above on the five-point scale. These supervisors assigned their highest rating (4.80) to item 34, working well with other teachers, and their lowest (3.40) to item 6, using community resources to enhance students' learning experiences.

By contrast, only three of secondary school supervisors' mean ratings were placed at 4.00 or above on the scale. These were awarded to items 5, preparing appropriate teaching aids (mean = 4.00), 14, displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter (mean = 4.12), and 35, working well with administrative staff (mean = 4.25). Their lowest mean rating, 3.00, was assigned to item 33, communicating positively with parents.

For their part, primary school supervisors were the only group to provide mean ratings lower than 3.00 on the five-point scale. These were awarded to items 18, using effective questioning techniques (mean = 2.94), 24, diagnosing students' learning needs (mean = 2.76), and 27, evaluating own performance (mean = 2.69). Their highest rating (4.33) was awarded by primary school supervisors to item 34, working well with other teachers.

Differences between the ratings provided by the three groups of supervisors were largest in the following instances: primary school supervisors assessed their teachers' ability to prepare teaching aids (item 5) at 3.00 on the five-point scale, while for the same behaviour secondary school supervisors provided a mean rating of 4.00, and all-age school supervisors a rating of 4.33. With regard to item 8, grouping students for instruction, where all-age school supervisors awarded a mean rating of 4.20, primary and secondary school supervisors provided ratings of 3.50 and 3.29 respectively. Primary and secondary school supervisors' mean ratings for item 19, using a variety of instructional techniques were 3.00 and 3.14 respectively. The mean rating provided by all-age school supervisors was 4.20. All-age school supervisors also assessed teachers' performance in individualizing instruction at 4.20, while primary and secondary supervisors assigned scores of 3.12 and 3.25 respectively. Similarly large discrepancies were observed in the ratings of two items of assessment, numbers 25 and 26. All three groups assigned identical mean ratings to each of those two behaviours 3.29 (primary supervisors); 3.37 (secondary supervisors) and 4.40 (all-age school supervisors).

Discussion. The foregoing results demonstrate that, in the main, all-age school supervisors appear to be most satisfied with the performance of first-year teachers. Given the particular challenges which have to be met in those contexts, the finding is gratifying. One is led to speculate that supervisors may be particularly generous in their assessment because they appreciate the efforts made by teachers to meet those challenges. The comments to this effect offered in interviews by such supervisors would tend to support this contention. Secondary school supervisors, though apparently quite satisfied with teachers' performance, were generally less favourable in their ratings than their counterparts in all-age schools. Primary school supervisors, for their part, were even more moderate in their ratings. The question arises as to whether there are significant factors at work in the urban setting with which teachers are less adequately prepared to cope, or whether supervisors in urban primary and secondary schools are applying somewhat different criteria in their judgment of teacher performance.

Certain explanatory comments volunteered by supervisors in interviews provide insights of value. Several primary school supervisors, for example, observed that teachers displayed distinct deficiencies in their knowledge of subject content, particularly in the area of reading. Further, a number of these supervisors claimed that, although there were considerable resources available within their schools, teachers often failed to make extensive use of them, and tended to revert to teaching approaches which relied heavily upon "chalk and talk". As this comment appears almost diametrically opposed to the opinion expressed by nearly every teacher in the equivalent sub-group, questions arise concerning possible causes for the difference of perception.

There appear to be at least two possible explanations for this situation. One might be that teachers and supervisors differed fundamentally in their conception of what constituted appropriate resources for teachers' classroom needs. If this were the case, it would seem to indicate a distinct lack of congruence between what teachers had been trained to value in this regard, and what supervisors in schools actually considered appropriate. The other, which seems likely to be more feasible, is that there may exist a lack of communication within the school organization itself concerning what resources are, in fact, available and where these may be obtained. If this were indeed the case, there would seem to be a need for a planned period of induction during which new teachers were made aware of all relevant information concerning the school and its resources.

Secondary school supervisors, for their part, also expressed concern that teachers tended not to vary their teaching sufficiently, and not to take sufficiently into account the individual needs of students, teaching too often to the whole class. The weakness of teachers in being able to diagnose students' learning needs appeared in their view, to account for these tendencies. Further, the pressure felt by secondary teachers to "cover the syllabus" in a system which was strongly directed towards external examinations also, in supervisors' opinions contributed to teachers' insufficient attention to students' individual needs.

All three groups of supervisors concurred that teachers displayed less competence in two significant aspects of assessment: diagnosing the needs of their students and evaluating their own performance. A comparison of the ratings of teachers and supervisors in each school type reveals to what extent the judgment of supervisors in relation to the latter behaviour is justified in each context.

Comparison of Teachers' and Supervisors' Perceptions Based on Type of School

Tables 28, 29 and 30 present comparisons of teachers' and supervisors' ratings classified by the types of schools in which respondents were working.

Table 28 shows that the ratings of primary school supervisors were lower than those of teachers for thirty-five out of thirty-seven behaviours. The two items where supervisors' ratings were higher were numbers 33, communicating positively with parents, and 35, working

Table 28

Comparison of Teachers' and Supervisors' Ratings Classified by Type of School: Primary Schools

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Mean Rating Teachers n = 21	Rank	Mean Rating Supervisors n = 18	Rank	Discrepancy
A. Lesson Preparation						
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	3.81	30.5*	3.67	5.5*	.14
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	4.00	25.5*	3.33	25*	.67
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	3.76	32.5*	3.39	20	.37
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	4.29	9.5*	3.29	28.5*	1.00
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	4.05	21.5*	3.00	33*	1.05
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	3.50	36	3.00	33*	.50
B. Classroom Management						
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	3.95	27.5*	3.53	12*	.42
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	4.05	21.5*	3.50	14.5*	.55
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	4.24	12.5	3.53	12*	.71
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	4.14	15*	3.53	12*	.61
11. Making efficient use of class time	24*	4.00	25.5*	3.44	17	.56
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	3.71	34	3.57	10	.14
C. Lesson Presentation						
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	3.90	29	3.37	21.5*	.53
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	4.14	15*	3.37	21.5*	.77
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	4.05	21.5*	3.82	4	.23
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	4.14	15*	3.67	7	.47
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	4.24	12.5*	3.47	16	.77
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	4.05	21.5*	2.94	35	1.11
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20*	3.62	35	3.00	33	.62
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16.5*	4.09	17.5*	3.12	31	.97
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.29	9.5*	3.59	9	.70
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	3.95	27.5*	3.35	23	.60
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.48	4*	3.41	18.5*	1.07
D. Assessment						
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	3.76	32.5*	2.76	36	1.00
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	4.05	21.5*	3.29	28.5*	.76
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	4.05	21.5*	3.29	28.5*	.76
27. Evaluating own performance	11	3.81	30.5*	2.69	37	1.12
E. Interpersonal Relationships						
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.48	4*	3.67	5.5*	.81
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.48	4*	3.61	8	.87
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.43	6.5*	3.41	18.5*	1.02
31. Motivating students to learn	2	4.43	6.5*	3.33	25*	1.10
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	4.52	1.5*	3.29	28.5*	1.23
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.38	37	3.50	14.5*	-.12
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	4.52	1.5*	4.33	1	.19
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	4.09	17.5*	4.25	2	-.16
36. Working well with school support staff	37	4.25	11	4.12	3	.13
F. Professional Awareness						
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.38	8	3.33	25*	1.05

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates the higher of the mean ratings compared

well with administrative staff. Discrepancy scores were small in these two instances, being -.12 and -.16 respectively. When teachers' ratings were higher than those of supervisors, however, differences tended to be substantial.

In ten cases, the discrepancy between primary teachers' and supervisors' ratings was 1.00 or greater. Two of these wide divergences of perception occurred with regard to two of the five most important behaviours: number 24, diagnosing students' learning needs (discrepancy = 1.00) and number 31, motivating students to learn (discrepancy = 1.10). In the case of the behaviour ranked first in importance (selecting appropriate subject content, #1) the discrepancy between teachers' and supervisors' ratings was small: .14.

The ratings of secondary school supervisors were lower than those of teachers in twenty-seven out of thirty-seven cases, as Table 29 reveals. In nine of these instances, supervisors' ratings were lower by more than .50. Most of the differences between ratings were relatively small when supervisors' ratings were higher: there was only one item for which the discrepancy was larger than .50. This was number 14, displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter. There was one item where teachers' self-ratings were higher by more than 1.00 than those of supervisors. That was number 23, using praise (discrepancy = 1.08).

In four out of the six most important behaviours, secondary school teachers rated their performance higher than did their supervisors. These were numbers 1, selecting appropriate subject content (discrepancy = .05); 3, using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities (discrepancy = .30); 24,

Table 29

Comparison of Teachers' and Supervisors' Ratings Classified by Type of School: Secondary Schools

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Mean Rating Teachers n = 7	Rank	Mean Rating Supervisors n = 8	Rank	Discrepancy
A. Lesson Preparation						
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	3.67	24*	3.62	21*	.05
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	3.67	24*	3.62	21*	.05
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	3.67	24*	3.37	28*	.30
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	3.67	24*	3.62	21*	.05
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	3.57	31*	4.00	3	-.43
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	3.50	35*	3.14	34*	.36
B. Classroom Management						
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	3.86	14*	3.87	7*	-.01
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	3.17	37	3.29	30	-.12
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	3.57	31*	3.75	15.5*	-.18
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	3.71	18.5*	3.62	21*	.09
11. Making efficient use of class time	24*	3.57	31*	3.87	7*	-.30
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	3.71	18.5*	3.87	7*	-.16
C. Lesson Presentation						
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	4.00	10.5*	3.75	5.5*	.25
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	3.57	31*	4.12	2	-.55
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	3.86	14*	3.62	21*	.24
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	4.00	10.5*	3.86	12*	.14
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	3.86	14*	3.87	7*	-.01
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	3.86	14*	3.57	24.5*	.29
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20*	3.86	14*	3.14	34*	.72
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16.5*	3.57	31*	3.25	31.5*	.32
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.33	4*	3.75	15.5*	.58
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	4.17	7*	3.57	24.5*	.60
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.33	4*	3.25	31.5*	1.08
D. Assessment						
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	3.50	35*	3.14	34*	.36
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	3.50	35*	3.37	28*	.13
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	3.67	24*	3.37	28*	.30
27. Evaluating own performance	11	3.67	24*	3.12	36	.55
E. Interpersonal Relationships						
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.17	7*	3.87	7*	.30
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.57	1	3.86	12*	.71
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.50	2	3.71	18	.79
31. Motivating students to learn	2	3.67	24*	3.50	26	.17
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	4.17	7*	3.86	12*	.31
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.67	24*	3.00	37	.67
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	4.14	9	3.87	7*	.27
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	3.83	17	4.25	1	-.42
36. Working well with school support staff	37	3.67	24*	3.87	7*	-.20
F. Professional Awareness						
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.33	4*	3.75	15.5*	.58

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates the higher of the mean ratings compared

diagnosing students' learning needs (discrepancy = .36); and 31, motivating students to learn (discrepancy = .17). In the other two instances, supervisors' ratings were slightly higher.

Table 30 shows that all-age school supervisors provided higher ratings than teachers for fourteen items. In five of these cases, the differences between supervisors' and teachers' ratings were larger than .50. Of the twenty-four instances where teachers' ratings were higher than those of supervisors, three differences were greater than .50. There was no item where the discrepancy between the two groups of scores was larger than 1.00. In twenty-nine instances, teachers' and supervisors' ratings varied by a margin of less than .50.

Items for which supervisors' scores were substantially higher than those of teachers were: number 34, working well with other teachers (discrepancy = -.91); number 36, working well with school support staff (discrepancy = -.78); number 12, keeping accurate records (discrepancy = -.58); number 5, preparing appropriate teaching aids (discrepancy = -.55); and number 25, monitoring students' progress (discrepancy = -.51).

Teachers' ratings were substantially higher for items 3, using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities (discrepancy = .53), and 24, diagnosing students' learning needs (discrepancy = .51), and 30, displaying acceptance of students as individuals (discrepancy = .62).

Discussion. Despite supervisors' reservations concerning teachers' ability to evaluate their own performance, when teachers' and supervisors' ratings are compared on the basis of the type of

Table 30

Comparison of Teachers' and Supervisors' Ratings Classified by Type of School: All-Age Schools

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Mean Rating Teachers n = 9	Rank	Mean Rating Supervisors n = 5	Rank	Discrepancy
A. Lesson Preparation						
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	3.89	26*	3.80	29*	.09
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	3.89	26*	3.80	29*	.09
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	4.33	8.5*	3.80	29*	.53
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	3.78	31.5*	4.00	23	-.22
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	3.78	31.5*	4.33	9	-.55
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	3.86	29*	3.40	37	.46
B. Classroom Management						
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	4.33	8.5*	4.20	15*	.13
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	4.56	2.5*	4.20	15*	.36
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	3.67	35	3.80	29*	-.13
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	3.78	31.5*	3.80	29*	-.02
11. Making efficient use of class time	24*	4.00	21.5*	4.20	15*	-.20
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	3.62	36.5*	4.20	15*	-.58
C. Lesson Presentation						
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	4.00	21.5*	4.20	15*	-.20
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	4.12	16.5*	4.00	23*	.12
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	4.25	11.5*	4.00	23*	.25
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	4.50	4	4.40	5.5*	.10
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	4.22	14	4.20	15*	.02
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	4.00	21.5*	3.60	35.5*	.40
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20*	3.75	34	4.20	15*	-.45
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16.5*	3.78	31.5*	4.20	15*	-.42
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.38	8.5*	4.20	15*	.18
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	4.00	21.5*	3.80	29*	.20
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.12	16.5*	4.00	23*	.12
D. Assessment						
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	4.11	18.5*	3.60	35.5*	.51
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	3.89	26*	4.40	5.5*	-.51
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	4.11	18.5*	4.40	5.5*	-.29
27. Evaluating own performance	11	4.22	14*	3.75	33.5*	.47
E. Interpersonal Relationships						
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.44	5.5*	4.40	5.5*	.04
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.44	5.5*	4.40	5.5*	.04
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.62	1	4.00	23*	.62
31. Motivating students to learn	2	4.33	8.5*	4.20	15*	.13
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	4.22	14*	3.80	29*	.42
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.89	26*	3.75	33.5*	.14
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	3.89	26*	4.80	1	-.91
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	4.25	11.5*	4.60	2	-.35
36. Working well with school support staff	37	3.62	36.5*	4.40	5.5*	-.78
F. Professional Awareness						
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.56	2.5*	4.20	15*	.36

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates the higher of mean ratings compared

school in which respondents were working, only in the context of the primary school are consistently large discrepancies observed. The ratings of all-age school teachers and supervisors reflect the highest degree of congruence, and fairly extensive areas of agreement are also discerned in the perceptions of secondary school teachers and supervisors.

It may be reasoned, in relation to all-age schools, that in a rural setting where schools and teaching staffs are small, supervisors work in much closer contact with their teachers. Indeed, in an interview, when asked about relationships with her supervisor, one all-age school teacher pointed out: "We are like a family here." Supervisors also maintained in interviews that much planning was done jointly between themselves and teachers and that ideas were shared on a reciprocal basis. The level of communication, therefore, appeared to be quite high, despite the fact that, due to their own teaching commitments, supervisors in those settings were not always able to provide a great deal of direct supervision. One might logically assume that, in these schools, a fairly clear understanding is achieved concerning desired levels of performance.

In secondary schools, on the other hand, teaching staffs tend to be very large. However, supervision of new teachers is usually the responsibility of heads of departments who are responsible for relatively small groups of teachers. Further, it appears from information given in interviews, that a number of those schools have well-defined guidelines for teacher performance in the instructional and administrative aspects of teaching. These factors may provide at least a partial explanation of the level of agreement in supervisors' and teachers' ratings in this setting. Most significant differences seem to occur in items which refer to aspects of teachers' dealings with students which are likely to be less amenable to definition.

The consistently large differences in perspective observed in the ratings of primary school teachers and supervisors seem to argue a fundamental divergence between the performance expectations of the two groups. This is a situation of concern for those engaged in the preparation of teachers, for, if teachers are using in their evaluation of their own performance standards established in the course of their training, these would seem to be at serious odds with those being employed by primary school supervisors. In any event, consultation between teacher educators and these supervisors would seem to be necessary if consensus is to be arrived at concerning acceptable teacher performance at this level.

Nevertheless, one is led to wonder, in addition, to what extent consultation takes place between supervisors and their teachers, to identify clearly the expected levels of performance. It appears likely that more extensive dialogue at this level may also be needed.

In summary, it appeared that both teachers' and supervisors' perceptions were in large measure related to factors operating within the schools in which they were working. It seemed likely also that teachers' perceptions might be related other types of variables.

Teachers' Perceptions of Their Performance Based on Type of College Program Followed

Another of the variables employed in the further analysis of teachers' responses was that which referred to the type of College of The Bahamas program teachers had followed. For this purpose, teachers were considered in two groups: those who had followed a program leading to a teacher's certificate only, and those who had followed a program leading to an associate degree with teacher's certificate. There were thirty-one respondents in the first group and only six in the other, so the degree of confidence with which results may be interpreted is limited. Nevertheless, a comparison of the ratings of the two groups appeared to hold promise of providing a useful additional insight into the overall effectiveness of teacher preparation arrangements.

Findings. An examination of the data presented in Table 31 reveals that teachers who had completed the associate degree program in addition to their teacher's certificate requirements rated their performance on twenty-eight of the thirty-seven behaviours at points between 4 (well) and 5 (very well) on the five-point scale. For the remaining nine behaviours, their ratings fell between 3 (adequately) and 4 (well). Highest ratings were awarded to items 29, displaying warmth and caring for students, and 30, displaying acceptance of students as individuals (means in both instances = 4.67). These teachers awarded their lowest mean rating of 3.67 to specifying instructional objectives (#2), taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary (#10), building positively on students' ideas (#23), and communicating positively with parents (#33).

Teachers who had completed a teacher's certificate only provided nineteen ratings between 4 (well) and 5 (very well) on the five-point scale. Their highest ratings (mean = 4.45) were awarded to items 29, displaying warmth and caring for students, and 30, displaying acceptance of students as individuals. Non-associate degree teachers assigned their lowest rating (3.52) to item 6, using community

Table 31

Teachers' Ratings of Their Performance Classified by Type of Program Followed

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Mean Rating Teachers With Associate Degree n = 6	Rank	Mean Rating Teachers Without Associate Degree n = 31	Rank	Discrepancy
A. Lesson Preparation						
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	4.00	24*	3.77	33	.23
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	3.67	35*	3.97	21.5*	-.30
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	4.33	9*	3.80	31.5*	.53
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	4.50	3.5*	3.97	21.5*	.53
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	4.33	9*	3.81	30	.52
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	3.83	30.5*	3.52	37	.31
B. Classroom Management						
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	4.17	16.5*	4.00	17*	.17
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	4.17	16.5*	4.00	17*	.17
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	4.00	24*	3.97	21.5*	.03
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	3.67	35*	4.03	14	-.36
11. Making efficient use of class time	24.5*	3.83	30.5*	3.94	25	-.11
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	4.00	24*	3.63	35	.37
C. Lesson Presentation						
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	4.00	24*	3.93	26	.07
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	4.33	9*	3.97	21.5	.36
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	4.33	9*	4.00	17*	.33
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	4.33	9*	4.17	10	.16
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	4.17	16.5*	4.16	11	.01
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	4.00	24*	4.00	17*	.00
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20*	3.67	35*	3.70	34	-.03
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16.5*	4.17	16.5*	3.87	28.5*	.30
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.33	9*	4.30	8	.03
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	3.67	35*	4.07	13	-.40
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.33	9*	4.38	6	-.05
D. Assessment						
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	3.83	30.5*	3.80	31.5	.03
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	4.00	29*	3.90	27	.10
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	4.00	24*	4.00	17*	.00
27. Evaluating own performance	11	4.00	24*	3.87	28.5*	.13
E. Interpersonal Relationships						
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.50	3.5*	4.40	5	.10
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.67	1.5*	4.45	1.5*	.22
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.67	1.5*	4.45	1.5*	.22
31. Motivating students to learn	2	4.33	9*	4.27	9	.06
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	4.17	16.5*	4.43	3.5*	-.26
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.67	35*	3.53	36	.14
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	4.00	24*	4.36	7	-.36
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	3.83	30.5*	4.14	12	-.31
36. Working well with school support staff	37	4.17	16.5*	3.96	24	.21
F. Professional Awareness						
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.33	9*	4.43	3.5*	-.10

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates the higher of the mean ratings compared

resources to enhance children's learning experiences.

The ratings of associate degree teachers were higher for twenty-five of the thirty-seven behaviours. In three instances, the differences between ratings were .50 or above. Those behaviours were: #3 using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities (discrepancy = .53); #4, selecting appropriate teaching materials (discrepancy = .53); and #5, preparing appropriate teaching aids (discrepancy = .52). In nine instances, discrepancies between the groups of scores were .10 or less. On two items (#18, using effective questioning techniques, and #26, evaluating students' achievements) the ratings of both groups were identical.

Teachers without an associate degree rated their performance higher on ten items of teacher behaviour. In these ten instances, however, none of the differences between scores was .50 or above.

Discussion. The findings in relation to these two groups of respondents indicate that there is fundamentally little difference in perception between teachers who had pursued an associate degree program and those who had not. The additional background in subject specializations and in more sophisticated study of English, may to some extent be related to the somewhat higher scores awarded by associate degree teachers to their proficiency in the relevant items of behaviour -- #14, displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter, and #15, using Standard English appropriately. However the discrepancies in these two instances were not very large: .36 in the case of item 14, and .33 in the case of item 15 -- not large enough to allow firm conclusions to be drawn. The rather more substantial differences perceived in aspects of lesson preparation (planning teaching activities, selecting materials and preparing aids) may be related in some way to the additional study pursued by those associate degree teachers, but since many of the professional courses which deal specifically with these dimensions were common to both groups, such a contention is somewhat difficult to defend.

One is led to the conclusion, therefore, that, at least during the first year of teaching, teachers' perceptions of their performance do not seem to be significantly related to the type of program they had followed at college.

Teachers' Perceptions of Their Performance Based on Previous Teaching Experience

The final variable employed in the further analysis of teachers' responses was the degree of previous teaching experience possessed by those teachers. Because of the small numbers of responses found in some cells, the four categories initially provided on questionnaires were collapsed into two major groupings: teachers who had had some teaching experience prior to entering college, and those who had had none.

Findings. Table 32 presents the comparative ratings of teachers classified on the basis of their previous teaching experience. Teachers with previous experience rated their performance higher on thirty-two of the thirty-seven items, but in only five cases were the differences between ratings higher than .50. These cases were #32, encouraging students to develop self-respect, #33, communicating positively with parents, #34, working well with other teachers, #35,

Table 32

Teachers' Ratings of Their Performance Classified by Previous Teaching Experience

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Mean Rating Teachers with Previous Experience n = 15	Rank	Mean Rating Teachers without Previous Experience n = 22	Rank	Discrepancy
A. Lesson Preparation						
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	3.73	35.5*	3.86	24*	-.13
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	4.07	21.5*	3.81	29	.26
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	3.93	30.5*	3.86	24*	.07
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	4.13	16.5*	4.00	14.5*	.13
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	4.00	27*	3.82	26.5*	.18
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	3.57	37	3.58	35	-.01
B. Classroom Management						
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	4.07	21.5*	4.00	14.5*	.07
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	3.73	35.5	4.24	6	-.51
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	3.93	30.5*	4.00	14.5*	-.07
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	4.07	21.5*	3.91	20	.16
11. Making efficient use of class time	24	3.87	33	3.95	18	-.08
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	3.93	30.5*	3.54	36	.39
C. Lesson Presentation						
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	4.00	27*	3.89	22	.11
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	4.07	21.5*	4.00	14.5*	.07
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	4.27	14	3.90	21	.37
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	4.33	12*	4.09	10	.24
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	4.33	12*	4.04	11.5*	.29
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	4.20	15	3.86	24*	.34
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20*	3.80	34	3.62	33.5*	.18
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16*	4.07	21.5*	3.82	26.5*	.25
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.33	12*	4.29	4.5*	.04
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	4.07	21.5*	3.95	18	.12
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.64	3	4.19	7	.45
D. Assessment						
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	4.07	21.5*	3.62	33.5*	.45
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	4.13	16.5*	3.76	31	.37
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	4.07	21.5*	3.95	18	.12
27. Evaluating own performance	11	4.00	27*	3.81	29*	.19
E. Interpersonal Relationships						
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.60	4.5*	4.29	4.5*	.31
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.60	4.5*	4.41	2*	.19
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.53	6	4.45	1	.08
31. Motivating students to learn	2	4.47	9.5	4.14	8.5*	.33
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	4.73	1	4.14	8.5*	.59
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.93	30.5*	3.29	37	.64
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	4.67	2	4.04	11.5*	.63
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	4.50	7.5*	3.81	29*	.69
36. Working well with school support staff	37	4.50	7.5*	3.65	32	.85
F. Professional Awareness						
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.47	9.5*	4.38	3	.09

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates the higher of the mean ratings compared

working well with administrative staff, and #36, working well with school support staff. More experienced teachers also assigned substantially higher ratings to two other important behaviours: #24, diagnosing students' learning needs (discrepancy = .45) and #31, motivating students to learn (discrepancy = .33).

Of the five behaviours for which teachers without previous experience provided higher ratings, only one, (#8, grouping students for instruction) elicited a difference higher than .50.

More experienced teachers awarded their highest rating (mean = 4.73) to #32, encouraging students to develop self-respect. Their next highest rating (mean = 4.67) was provided for #34, working well with other teachers. Their lowest rating (mean = 3.57) was assigned by these teachers to #6, using community resources to enhance children's learning experiences.

Less experienced teachers rated their performance highest in relation to behaviour #30, displaying acceptance of students as individuals (mean = 4.45). Their next highest rating (mean = 4.41) was provided for item 29, displaying warmth and caring for students. Less experienced teachers assigned their lowest rating (mean = 3.29) to #33, communicating positively with parents.

Discussion. Despite the generally higher ratings awarded by teachers with previous experience, the absence of consistently strong differences suggests that, except in the dimensions of interpersonal relationships and assessment noted, the possession of previous teaching experience is not a significant factor in teachers' perceptions of their performance.

However, the substantially higher rating provided by experienced teachers in the dimension of diagnosis of students' needs leads to the speculation that proficiency in this behaviour (identified by both teachers and supervisors as an area of weakness in teachers' competence) may increase as teachers have more contact with children in real situations. Indeed, in their interviews, several teachers advised that training in diagnostic and assessment skills should be made more practical, and that prospective teachers should be given more opportunity to apply theoretical principles in real classroom settings.

The facets of interpersonal relationships which elicited significantly higher ratings from experienced teachers appear to be related to the greater degree of confidence teachers are likely to possess if they have worked within a given situation for some time.

There seemed, however, to be little conclusive evidence to suggest that experience in teaching prior to professional training might be considered a significant factor in teachers' perceptions of their performance.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Research Question 1:

> What are the perceptions of a group of first-year teachers and their supervisors concerning the performance of those teachers during their initial year of teaching after training?

Generally, both teachers and supervisors perceived that teachers' performance during their first year of teaching after training was satisfactory, although both groups identified areas of weakness which might be related to inadequacies in their preparation.

On the basis of combined rankings of teachers and supervisors, the most important behaviours were seen to be: (1) #1, selecting appropriate subject content; (2) #31, motivating students to learn; (3) #24, diagnosing students' learning needs; (4) #3, using the knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities; and (5.5) #8, grouping students for instruction, and #17, presenting information clearly.

Teachers perceived their greatest areas of strength to lie in interpersonal relationships (particularly with students), and in lesson presentation. While supervisors agreed with these perceptions in part, they tended to differ concerning teachers' relationships with students, and to report certain areas of weakness within teachers' performance in lesson presentation. Both groups agreed, however, that teachers' least competent areas of performance were those associated with lesson preparation and with assessment.

In relation to those behaviours considered to be most important, neither group of respondents rated teachers' performance to be especially strong. Generally, teachers appeared to be doing best in aspects of teaching which were judged to be of moderate or low importance.

Teachers generally rated their performance higher than did supervisors and discrepancies between the two groups were often quite large. Fairly substantial differences were observed between the perceptions of teachers and supervisors concerning teachers' performance in the behaviours considered most important.

Research Question 2:

> To what extent are the perceptions of first-year teachers concerning their performance related to (i) differences in grade level, (ii) personal variables, (iii) demographic variables, or (iv) experience in teaching prior to professional training?

When teachers' perceptions were compared on the basis of the type and level of school in which teachers were working, primary school teachers were seen to have provided consistently highest ratings. All-age school teachers also supplied generally high ratings, while junior secondary school teachers provided the lowest ratings of all.

When supervisors' perceptions were compared on this same basis, all-age school supervisors' ratings emerged as being the highest, secondary school supervisors' ratings next highest, and primary school supervisors' ratings as being lowest of all. Comparisons between teachers' and supervisors' ratings in the equivalent sub-groupings revealed that there was strongest agreement between the perceptions of all-age teachers and their supervisors. There was also a fair degree of congruence between the perceptions of junior secondary school teachers and those of their supervisors. By contrast, the views of primary school teachers and their supervisors were widely divergent.

The examination of teachers' responses on the basis of the type of program teachers had followed at the College of The Bahamas provided no firm evidence that teachers' perceptions were significantly related to such a factor.

The analysis of teachers' responses on the basis of teachers' experience in teaching prior to undergoing professional training demonstrated that only in relation to the use of diagnostic skills and to the ability to establish satisfactory relationships with significant individuals in the school setting did previous experience in teaching appear to be strongly associated with differences in teachers' perceptions.

In Chapter 6, teachers' perceptions concerning the adequacy of their preparation are described and discussed.

CHAPTER 6

ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS CONCERNING TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE ADEQUACY OF THEIR PREPARATION

In Chapter 5, an examination was made of the perceptions of a group of first-year teachers and their supervisors concerning those teachers' performance during their initial year of teaching after training. As a means of measuring that performance, ratings had been obtained on the thirty-seven teacher behaviours which, in this study, served as indicators of competent teacher performance.

In the present chapter, consideration is given to teachers' perceptions of the adequacy of their preparation relative to those same behaviours. The findings reported are drawn from teachers' ratings of their preparation on each of the thirty-seven behaviours, and provide information pertinent to issues raised in the third research question formulated in Chapter 1. This question was concerned with the extent to which teachers perceived their teacher education programs to have been effective in providing them with the competence necessary to perform their teaching roles.

As the fourth research question more specifically probed the degree to which teachers' perceptions appeared to be related to personal or situational variables, additional analyses of data were carried out on the basis of such variables. The results of these procedures are also reported in this chapter.

Teachers' numerical ratings of their preparation and their free responses to open-ended questionnaire items and to interview questions provided insights into areas of strength and weakness they perceived within their preparation programs. These were issues raised in the fifth research question. Findings in this regard are described and discussed in this chapter as well.

I. TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS CONCERNING THEIR PREPARATION

The third research question posed in Chapter 1 asked:

> To what extent do first-year teachers perceive their preparation programs as having assisted them to develop attributes which appear to be necessary for competent teaching?

Findings

Table 33 presents the frequency distribution of teachers' ratings of their preparation on each of the thirty-seven teacher behaviours included in the research instruments. Raw frequencies demonstrate that the categories of response most often used by teachers were 4 (well) and 5 (very well). Fairly extensive use was also made of the category 3 (adequately). However, throughout the various groups of behaviours, a number of teachers employed category 2 (poorly) to describe the way their program had prepared them, and in six instances at least one teacher made use of the category 1 (very poorly).

Teachers' mean ratings of their preparation fell between 4 (well) and 5 (very well) on the five-point scale for twenty-three of the thirty-seven behaviours. The remaining fourteen items were rated at

Table 33

Frequency Table of Teachers' Ratings Concerning the Quality of Their Preparation

Teacher Behaviours	Frequency[1] 1	2	3	4	5	n	Mean	S.D.	Rank
A. Lesson Preparation									
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	0	4	8	10	14	36	3.94	1.040	25.5*
2. Specifying instructional objectives	0	1	7	13	15	36	4.17	.845	10
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	0	3	7	15	11	36	3.94	.924	25.5*
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	0	0	6	6	24	36	4.50	.775	1
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	0	0	7	11	17	35	4.29	.789	4.5*
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	0	1	9	13	11	34	4.00	.853	21.5*
B. Classroom Management									
7. Arranging the classroom environment	0	3	8	7	18	36	4.11	1.036	12
8. Grouping students for instruction	0	3	9	10	13	35	3.94	.998	25.5*
9. Maintaining classroom order	0	1	10	10	14	35	4.06	.906	15.5*
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	0	1	13	10	11	35	3.89	.900	30.5*
11. Making efficient use of class time	0	0	11	12	12	35	4.03	.822	18.5*
12. Keeping accurate records	2	3	11	9	10	35	3.63	1.165	33
C. Lesson Presentation									
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	0	1	7	16	9	33	4.00	.791	21.5*
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	0	0	8	14	13	35	4.14	.772	11
15. Using Standard English appropriately	0	1	3	18	13	35	4.23	.731	8
16. Displaying enthusiasm	0	3	6	17	9	35	3.91	.887	29
17. Presenting information clearly	0	1	5	21	9	36	4.06	.715	15.5*
18. Using effective questioning techniques	0	0	5	15	15	35	4.29	.710	4.5*
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	0	0	3	18	14	35	4.31	.631	3
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	0	2	9	10	15	36	4.06	.955	15.5*
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	0	0	6	14	16	36	4.28	.741	6
22. Building positively on students' ideas	1	1	9	11	12	34	3.94	1.013	25.5*
23. Using praise	0	0	5	11	19	35	4.40	.736	2
D. Assessment									
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	0	2	11	12	11	36	3.89	.919	30.5*
25. Monitoring students' progress	0	4	9	12	11	36	3.83	1.000	32
26. Evaluating students' achievements	0	2	10	10	14	36	4.00	.956	21.5*
27. Evaluating own performance	0	1	8	14	13	36	4.08	.841	13
E. Interpersonal Relationships									
28. Developing positive relationships with students	0	1	9	12	13	35	4.06	.873	15.5*
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	0	3	6	15	12	35	4.00	.926	21.5*
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	1	0	4	14	16	35	4.26	.886	7
31. Motivating students to learn	0	1	7	11	17	36	4.22	.866	9
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	0	2	8	12	13	35	4.03	.923	18.5*
33. Communicating positively with parents	3	8	10	12	3	36	3.11	1.116	37
34. Working well with other teachers	1	2	16	11	5	35	3.49	.919	34
35. Working well with administrative staff	1	6	14	11	4	36	3.31	.980	36
36. Working well with school support staff	0	6	14	10	4	34	3.35	.917	35
F. Professional Awareness									
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	0	3	9	12	12	36	3.92	.967	28

[1] Categories of response represented on this scale were: 1 = Very Poorly; 2 = Poorly; 3 = Adequately; 4 = Well; 5 = Very Well

*Indicates tied ranks

points which fell between 3 (adequately) and 4 (well) on the scale.

The three groups of behaviours in which highest ratings were assigned were: lesson preparation, lesson presentation and professional awareness. In the area of lesson preparation, only two of the six mean ratings fell slightly below 4 (well) on the scale. These were assigned to the two items in this group which ranked first and fourth in overall importance: #1, selecting appropriate subject content (mean = 3.94), and #3, using the knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities (mean = 3.94). These two ratings placed 25.5 in the overall ranking of program adequacy. Teachers awarded their highest rating of all (4.50) to item 4, selecting appropriate teaching materials.

With regard to behaviours associated with lesson presentation, only two of the eleven items were assigned mean ratings slightly lower than 4. These were: number 16, displaying enthusiasm (mean = 3.91) and number 22, building positively on students' ideas (mean = 3.94). Teachers' provided their highest rating in this group for item 23, using praise (mean = 4.40). This rating placed second in the overall ranking of program adequacy. The mean rating of 4.31 assigned to #19, using a variety of instructional techniques ranked third. The behaviour in this group for which teachers provided the next highest rating (mean = 4.29, rank = 4.5) was #18, using effective questioning techniques. In reference to the behaviour which ranked 5.5 in overall importance, (#17, presenting information clearly) teachers provided a mean rating of 4.06 (rank = 15.5).

The one item included in the category of professional awareness, #37, displaying concern for continuing professional development, received a mean rating of 3.92, which ranked 28 in teachers' assessment of the effectiveness of their preparation.

Three of the behaviours associated with classroom management received mean ratings lower than 4 (well). These were item 8, grouping students for instruction (ranked 5.5 in overall importance), item 10, taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary, and item 12, keeping accurate records. Mean ratings of preparation in these behaviours were 3.94, 3.89 and 3.69 respectively. In respect of the other three behaviours, teachers awarded the highest rating of this group to item 7, arranging the classroom environment (mean = 4.11).

Mean ratings of 4.00 or higher were provided for two of the four behaviours in the category of assessment. These were: #27, evaluating own performance, and #26, evaluating students' achievements (mean = 4.00). The other two items of this group, #24, diagnosing students' learning needs, and #25, monitoring students' progress, received mean ratings of 3.89 and 3.83 respectively. The rating awarded to item 24 (ranked third in overall importance) ranked 30.5 in the order of program effectiveness.

Five of the nine behaviours included in the category of interpersonal relationships received mean ratings of 4.00 or higher. These were numbers 28, 29, 30, 31 and 32 -- all items referring to teachers' relationships with students. The highest rating (mean = 4.26) was assigned to item 30, displaying acceptance of students as individuals. Item 31, ranked second in importance, was awarded a mean rating of 4.22 (rank: 9).

The four behaviours in this category which referred to teachers' relationships with parents and various members of the school staff were rated considerably lower and occupied the four last ranks among ratings of program effectiveness. The lowest rating of all (mean = 3.11) was provided for number 33, *communicating positively with parents*.

Discussion. Teachers generally viewed very positively the preparation they had received in their teacher education programs for all aspects of teacher behaviour. However, it was significant that a number of respondents made use of the categories 2 (*poorly*) and 1 (*very poorly*) to describe their preparation -- an occurrence which was rare in the assessment of their own performance. Indeed, there were four items for which more than 10 percent of teachers judged their program to have been poor. These were: *selecting appropriate subject content* (11%); *monitoring students' progress* (11%); *working well with administrative staff* (16%); and *working well with school support staff* (16%). On one item, #33, *communicating positively with parents*, 22 percent of teachers reported they had been poorly prepared, and a further 8 percent indicated that they had been very poorly prepared.

These findings are particularly significant in relation to item 1, *selecting appropriate subject content*, since this was ranked first in importance of all behaviours. The overall mean rating awarded to this behaviour indicated, however, that most respondents felt that they were well prepared for this aspect of their work.

Certain of the comments made by teachers in response to open-ended questions and in interviews suggested possible explanations for the perceptions of teachers concerning their preparation in this area. There were indications that subject content taught in college was not always relevant to what was taught in the schools, and that there was insufficient demonstration of how to adapt subject matter to the needs of children at varying levels.

In relation to other important behaviours, the preparation offered in #31, motivating students to learn, emerged as the strongest, with teachers' rating reflecting the generally positive view they held of their preparation for relating with students. These perspectives were confirmed in interviews where teachers claimed that the importance of relating well with students and providing encouragement to them had been stressed in their preparation programs. However, other aspects of human relations were perceived to have been less well dealt with. Of particular concern is the low rating awarded to the item concerned with communicating positively with parents. Teachers admitted that they had received very little indication in their programs as to how to involve parents productively in their children's schooling. Parental apathy appeared to be endemic in the Bahamian school system, despite the efforts of the schools to stimulate interest, and teachers tended to have little opportunity to make contact with the parents of their students. However, one supervisor indicated that he felt that teachers should be trained in how to teach parents to help their children, since many parents felt inadequate to involve themselves in their children's education.

Teachers also confirmed in interviews that they had received virtually no preparation in their teacher education program as to how to go about establishing good relations with colleagues within the school setting. They suggested that, although they felt that the ability to get on well with others was largely a matter of individual personality, certain guidelines of appropriate behaviour might have been given.

Generally, then, there would seem here to be the same perception of need for human relations training that had been noted by teachers in the studies from other contexts reviewed in Chapter 3 of this dissertation. Nevertheless, this conclusion remains largely speculative, since respondents were not specifically asked to what extent they felt the college should prepare them in each area. This factor may represent a weakness in the research design.

Though relatively high in actual numerical value, the ranking of the preparation offered in diagnosing students' learning needs (#24), another of the most important behaviours, was low: 30.5 out of 37. This appeared to lend credence to the perception of weakness in teachers' performance in this area which was identified by both teachers and supervisors. Preparation offered in other items of importance was rated more favourably, but did not rank high in the order of overall effectiveness.

The major strengths of the preparation program seemed to lie in the selection and preparation of teaching materials and aids, and in the methodological skills of questioning and varying teaching approaches. By contrast, the relatively lower rating awarded by teachers to item 12, keeping accurate records, demonstrated the contention of teachers that they had received little preparation for the administrative aspects of teaching. Further, teachers claimed that they had had little opportunity during teaching practice to become acquainted with these aspects.

In relation to teacher education programs, the question arises as to how much attention should be paid to the clerical aspects of the teaching task. While in relative terms this dimension of the teacher's responsibilities would appear to be comparatively unimportant, the lack of such skills can add another unnecessary pressure to the already stressful experience being undergone by beginning teachers. Some introduction to these aspects would, therefore, seem to be desirable during preparation programs, particularly since little formal guidance appears to be offered in the schools themselves. An alternative arrangement would be for all schools to mount a planned period of induction during which new teachers might be introduced to the various routines of school life.

In any event, teachers' view that their preparation in this area had been less than optimal appears to be reflected in their rating of their performance on the same behaviour. A more extensive comparison of teachers' ratings of their performance and preparation reveals additional important insights.

Comparison of Teachers' Ratings of Performance and Preparation

Findings. Table 34 presents a comparison of teachers' ratings of their performance and preparation. Examination of these data shows that in eighteen cases out of thirty-seven, teachers rated their preparation higher than their performance. Performance received higher ratings in eighteen cases, and in one instance, item 26, evaluating students' achievements, the ratings provided for performance and preparation were identical (mean = 4.00).

When ratings for preparation were higher than those awarded to performance, differences were usually fairly small (less than .30). However, there was one instance where the discrepancy between the ratings teachers assigned to their performance and their preparation was larger than .50. This was item 19, using a variety of teaching techniques. The mean rating of 4.31 assigned to preparation was .62 larger than the

Table 34

Comparative Ratings of Performance and Preparation
All Teachers (n = 37)

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Overall Mean Rating Performance	Ranl	Overall Mean Rating Preparation	Rank	Difference
A. Lesson Preparation						
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	3.81	32.5*	3.94	25.5*	-.13
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	3.92	26.5*	4.17	10	-.25
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	3.89	30*	3.94	25.5*	-.05
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	4.06	13.5*	4.50	1	-.44
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	3.89	30*	4.29	4.5*	-.40
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	3.58	36	4.00	21.5*	-.42
B. Classroom Management						
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	4.03	16*	4.11	12	-.08
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	4.03	16*	3.94	25.5*	.09
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	3.97	22.5*	4.06	15.5*	-.09
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	3.97	22.5*	3.89	30.5*	-.08
11. Making efficient use of class time	24	3.92	26.5*	4.03	18.5*	-.11
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	3.69	34.5*	3.63	33	.06
C. Lesson Presentation						
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	3.94	24	4.00	21.5*	-.06
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	4.03	16*	4.14	11	-.11
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	4.06	13.5*	4.23	8	-.17
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	4.19	10	3.91	29	.28
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	4.16	11	4.06	15.5*	.10
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	4.00	19.5*	4.29	4.5*	-.29
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20*	3.69	34.5*	4.31	3	-.62
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16.5*	3.92	26.5*	4.06	15.5*	-.14
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.31	7	4.28	6	.03
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	4.00	19.5*	3.94	25.5*	.06
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.37	6	4.40	2	-.03
D. Assessment						
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	3.81	32.5*	3.89	30.5*	-.08
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	3.92	26.5*	3.83	32	.09
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	4.00	19.5*	4.00	21.5*	.00
27. Evaluating own performance	11	3.89	30*	4.08	13	-.19
E. Interpersonal Relationships						
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.42	3.5*	4.06	5.5*	.36
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.49	1.5*	4.00	21.5*	.49
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.49	1.5*	4.26	7	.23
31. Motivating students to learn	2	4.28	9	4.22	9	.06
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	4.39	5	4.03	18.5*	.36
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.56	37	3.11	37	.45
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	4.30	8	3.49	34	.81
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	4.09	12	3.31	36	.78
36. Working well with school support staff	37	4.00	19.5*	3.35	35	.65
F. Professional Awareness						
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.42	3.5*	3.92	28	.50

[1] Means were calculated on the basis of the following values: 1 = Very poorly; 2 = Poorly; 3 = Adequately; 4 = Well; 5 = Very Well

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates the higher of the mean ratings compared

rating of 3.69 teachers awarded to their performance. In three other cases, when ratings for preparation were higher, the difference between scores was .40 or larger. These were: #4, selecting appropriate teaching materials (difference = -.44); #5, preparing appropriate teaching aids (Difference = -.40); and #6, drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences (difference = -.42).

When teachers' ratings of their performance was higher than that provided for their preparation, the differences between the two groups of scores tended to be larger than when the reverse was the case. Four of the instances where performance was rated higher than preparation revealed a difference between scores of .50 or more. These were: #34, working well with other teachers, (difference = .81); #35, working well with administrative staff (difference = .78); #36, working well with school support staff (difference = .65); and #37, displaying concern for continuing professional development (difference = .50). Two other differences were larger than .40. These occurred in relation to items 29, displaying warmth and caring for students (difference = .49) and 33, communicating positively with parents (difference = .45). Six of the remaining differences were smaller than .10, and the other five ranged in size from .10 to .36.

The categories of behaviours where discrepancies were generally largest were those of interpersonal relationships and professional awareness. Small divergences of perception were observed in relation to classroom management and assessment, where no difference was as large as .20.

Discussion. The finding that teachers rated their preparation higher than their performance in half the items cited supports that generally favourable view of their programs conveyed by teachers both in numerical ratings and through free responses in questionnaires and interviews. The areas in which preparation was seen to be substantially better than the level of performance achieved were those in which teachers tended to identify mediating factors in the context of the schools. These were, particularly, the selection and preparation of teaching materials and aids, and the varying of teaching approaches. Though teachers confirmed that they had received extensive preparation in these behaviours in methods courses and through teaching practice, they perceived their performance as less than optimal because of the insufficiency of appropriate resources within the schools.

The finding that teachers viewed their performance to have been significantly better than their preparation in areas of human relations leads to the speculation that these are aspects of behaviour in which the level of performance is less strongly related to the level of preparation received. Teachers alluded to this in interviews, claiming that in large measure, their ability to get on well with others arose perhaps as a result of their own initiatives, past experience or personalities. In the light of these results, further, it might be concluded that, in a program of preparation where demands are many and time and resources are in short supply, if choices of emphasis have to be made, this area would seem to be the one which might receive less emphasis.

On the other hand, the very close ratings assigned to preparation and performance in the areas of classroom management, assessment and most aspects of lesson presentation, suggest that, in these behaviours, the adequacy of teachers' performance may be quite dependent on the adequacy of the preparation received.

II. TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR PREPARATION BASED ON SIGNIFICANT VARIABLES

In this section, teachers' perceptions concerning the effectiveness of their preparation programs are examined in the light of several significant variables. This analysis addresses the fourth research question which asked:

> To what extent are the perceptions of first-year teachers concerning their preparation related to (i) differences in grade level, (ii) personal variables, (iii) demographic variables, or (iv) experience in teaching prior to professional training?

Variables employed in the additional analyses of data undertaken for this purpose were the same as those identified in the previous chapter: type, level, size and location of schools; type of College of The Bahamas program followed; certification received; experience in teaching prior to training. Once again, the results of these procedures demonstrated that specific perspectives in teachers' responses were most consistently associated with the type of school in which teachers were working.

Teachers' Perceptions of Preparation Based on Type of School

The same three school groupings which were identified in Chapter 5 were employed in the analysis of teachers' ratings of their preparation. These were: primary, secondary and all-age schools.

Findings. Scrutiny of the data displayed in Table 35 reveals that

Table 35

Comparison of Teachers' Ratings of Preparation Classified by Type of School

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Mean Rating Primary School Teachers n = 21	Rank	Mean Rating Secondary School Teachers n = 7	Rank	Mean Rating All-Age School Teachers n = 9	Rank
A. Lesson Preparation							
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	4.05	27*	3.50	23.5*	4.00	23*
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	4.25	12.5*	3.67	17.5*	4.33	9
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	4.05	27*	3.50	23.5*	4.00	23*
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	4.67	1	3.83	10	4.56	4
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	4.45	3	3.86	7*	4.25	12*
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	4.15	17*	3.29	30.5*	4.29	10
B. Classroom Management							
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	4.30	10	2.86	34.5*	4.67	1
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	4.15	17*	2.86	34.5*	4.37	7*
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	4.20	14	3.43	26.5*	4.25	12*
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	4.00	29	3.43	26.5*	4.00	23*
11. Making efficient use of class time	24*	4.05	27*	3.57	20.5*	4.37	7*
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	3.65	34.5*	3.29	30.5*	3.87	28
C. Lesson Presentation							
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	3.95	31*	3.67	17.5*	4.37	7*
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	4.15	17	3.71	14*	4.50	5
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	4.35	7*	3.86	7*	4.25	12
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	3.95	31*	3.71	14*	4.00	23*
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	4.10	22	3.86	7*	4.11	17.5*
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	4.35	7*	3.71	14*	4.62	2.5*
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20*	4.25	11	4.14	4	4.62	2.5*
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16.5*	4.24	12.5*	3.57	20.5*	4.00	23
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.33	9	4.17	2.5*	4.22	14.5*
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	4.09	24*	3.83	10	3.57	31
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.52	2	4.33	1	4.12	16
D. Assessment							
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	3.95	31*	3.50	23.5*	4.00	23*
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	4.19	15	3.33	28.5*	3.33	34*
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	4.09	24*	3.50	23.5*	4.11	17.5*
27. Evaluating own performance	11	4.14	20*	3.67	17.5*	4.22	14.5*
E. Interpersonal Relationships							
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.14	20*	3.80	12*	4.00	23*
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.09	24*	4.00	5	3.78	29.5*
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.38	5	4.17	2.5*	4.00	23*
31. Motivating students to learn	2	4.43	4	3.83	10	4.00	23*
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	4.35	7*	3.33	28.5*	3.78	29.5*
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.29	37	2.83	36	2.89	37
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	3.67	33	3.00	32.5*	3.37	33
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	3.43	36	3.00	32.5*	3.22	35
36. Working well with school support staff	37	3.65	34.5*	2.67	37	3.16	36
F. Professional Awareness							
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.14	20*	3.67	17.5*	3.56	32

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates highest of mean rating compared in twenty cases out of thirty-seven, primary school teachers rated their preparation higher than did either of the other two groups. All-age school teachers provided highest ratings in the remaining sixteen items. In one case, primary and all-age school teachers provided the same mean rating. The ratings assigned by junior secondary teachers were lowest in thirty-one instances. In one case, item 25, their mean rating of their preparation was identical to that of all-age school teachers, and in five behaviours, junior secondary teachers provided higher ratings than did all-age school teachers.

In terms of numerical values, primary school teachers provided mean ratings which fell between 4 (well) and 5 (very well) for twenty-nine of the thirty-seven behaviours. Their remaining eight ratings occurred at points between 3 (adequately) and 4 (well) on the five-point scale. The highest mean ratings assigned by primary teachers were 4.67 (#4, selecting appropriate teaching materials); 4.52 (#23, using praise); and 4.45 (#4, preparing appropriate teaching aids). Primary school teachers provided their lowest mean rating (3.29) for item 33, communicating positively with parents.

Categories of behaviours for which these teachers assigned highest ratings were lesson preparation (no mean rating below 4.00), lesson presentation and classroom management. The group of behaviours which elicited the largest number of relatively low scores was that of inter-personal relationships.

All-age school teachers awarded mean ratings of 4.00 or higher to twenty-seven of the thirty-seven items. Nine of the remaining items were rated at points falling between 3 (adequately) and 4 (well) on the scale. One item, #33, communicating positively with parents, received a rating lower than 3.00 (mean = 2.89). The highest mean ratings awarded by all-age school teachers were 4.67 (#7, arranging the classroom environment), 4.62 (#18, using effective questioning techniques and #19, using a variety of instructional techniques), and 4.56 (#4, selecting appropriate teaching materials). As was mentioned, the lowest mean score which all-age school teachers provided went to item 33.

Categories of behaviours where consistently high ratings were awarded by all-age school teachers were lesson preparation, classroom management and lesson presentation. Lowest ratings were assigned to behaviours in interpersonal relationships.

Junior secondary teachers provided mean ratings of 4.00 or higher in only five instances. These were: #19, using a variety of instructional techniques (mean = 4.14); #21, encouraging students to participate in class, (mean = 4.17); #23, using praise (mean = 4.33); #29, displaying warmth and caring for students (mean = 4.00); and #30, displaying acceptance of students as incividuals (mean = 4.17).

Twenty-eight items were rated by junior secondary teachers at points between 3.00 and 4.00 on the scale. There were four items for which junior secondary teachers provided ratings lower than 3.00. These were: #7, arranging the classroom environment (mean = 2.86); #8, grouping students for instruction (mean = 2.86); #33, communicating positively with parents (mean = 2.83); and #36, working well with school support staff (mean = 2.67).

The group of behaviours for which junior secondary teachers awarded consistently high ratings was lesson presentation. The group which received consistently low ratings was classroom management. In the area of interpersonal relationships, junior secondary teachers provided quite high ratings for those behaviours which concerned relationships with students, and low ones for behaviours which referred to relationships with parents and school personnel.

The ratings provided by primary school teachers for behaviours ranked highest in overall importance generally did not place high in the ranking of program effectiveness. However, in relation to #31, motivating students to learn (ranked second in overall importance), primary school teachers provided a rating (mean = 4.43) which ranked fourth in their perceptions of program adequacy.

Among the ratings awarded by all-age school teachers for the six behaviours considered to be most important, only one placed among the ten highest ranked aspects of preparation. This was the mean rating of 4.37, assigned to item 8, grouping students for instruction (rank = 7).

The ratings which junior secondary teachers awarded to item 17, presenting information clearly, and item 31, motivating students to learn, ranked seventh and tenth respectively in those teachers' perceptions of program effectiveness. These same behaviours ranked fifth (5.5) and second in overall importance. Preparation for other important behaviours received relatively lower ratings from junior secondary teachers.

When ratings supplied by primary and junior secondary teachers are compared, primary teachers' scores are seen to be significantly higher in eighteen instances (i.e., discrepancies between scores are larger than .50). In three cases, differences between ratings were larger than 1.00. These very large discrepancies are observed in relation to the following behaviours: #7, arranging the classroom environment (discrepancy = 1.44); #8, grouping students for instruction (discrepancy = 1.29); and #32, encouraging students to develop self-respect (discrepancy = 1.02).

In every behaviour in the area of lesson preparation, primary school teachers rated their preparation more than .50 higher than did junior secondary teachers. For four out of the six behaviours in classroom management, primary school teachers supplied ratings which were higher than ratings of junior secondary teachers by more than .50. In addition to the two behaviours already discussed (numbers 7 and 8), substantial differences were also observed for #9, maintaining clasroom order (discrepancy = .77), and taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary (discrepancy = .57).

In the category of lesson presentation, differences larger than .50 were found between scores awarded by primary and junior secondary school teachers to #18, using effective questioning techniques (discrepancy = .64), and #20, individualizing instruction when necessary (discrepancy = .67).

Primary teachers rated their preparation in two of the behaviours in assessment significantly higher than did junior secondary teachers: #25, monitoring students' progress (discrepancy = .86), and #26, evaluating students; achievements (discrepancy = .59). Discrepancies between scores on the other two behaviours in this group were also substantial: .45 in the case of #24, diagnosing students' learning needs, and .47 in the case of #27, evaluating own performance.

Primary school teachers' scores were significantly higher than those of junior secondary teachers for most of the items in the category of interpersonal relationships. In addition to the very large discrepancy noted in relation to item 32, differences larger than .50

were perceived for items 31, motivating students to learn (discrepancy = .60), 34, working well with other teachers (discrepancy = .67), and 36, working well with school support staff (discrepancy = .98). A substantially higher rating was awarded by primary teachers for #37, displaying concern for continuing professional development (discrepancy = .47).

When ratings by primary and all-age teachers were compared, differences were generally smaller than those observed between ratings of primary and junior secondary teachers. When the ratings of primary school teachers were higher, differences were larger than .50 in four instances. Of these, the largest was seen in relation to #25, monitoring students' progress (discrepancy = .86). Others were: #22, building positively on students' ideas (discrepancy = .52); #32, encouraging students to develop self-respect (discrepancy = .57); and #37, displaying concern for continuing professional development (discrepancy = .58).

When all-age school teachers' ratings were higher than those awarded by primary teachers, there was no instance where the difference between scores was larger than .50. The largest discrepancy occurred in relation to item 13, approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner, (discrepancy = -.42).

When all-age school teachers' scores were compared with those of junior secondary teachers, however, the former were higher in thirty-two cases. The ratings of the two groups were identical for item 25, monitoring students' progress. Junior secondary teachers' scores were somewhat higher in four cases: #22, building positively on students' *ideas* (discrepancy = -.26; #23, *using praise* (discrepancy = -.21); #30, *displaying acceptance of students as individuals* (discrepancy = -.17); and #37, *displaying concern for continuing professional development* (discrepancy = -.11).

While, as has been seen, discrepancies were small when the ratings of junior secondary teachers were higher, the differences were large in most cases when all-age school teachers' ratings were higher. The three largest discrepancies were observed in relation to items 6, 7, and 8: *using community resources to enhance children's learning experiences* (discrepancy = 1.00); *arranging the classroom environment* (discrepancy = 1.81); and *grouping students for instruction* (discrepancy = 1.51). In fourteen other instances, the difference between the ratings of the two groups were larger than .50.

In the area of classroom management, all-age school teachers rated their preparation for every behaviour more than .50 higher than did junior secondary teachers. In lesson preparation, all behaviours but one (#5, *preparing appropriate teaching aids*) differences were similarly large.

On three items of lesson presentation, discrepancies between the ratings of all-age school teachers and those of teachers in junior secondary schools were larger than .50. These were #13, *approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner* (discrepancy = .70), #14, *displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter* (discrepancy = .79) and #18, *using effective questioning techniques* (discrepancy = .91)

All-age school teachers' ratings were substantially higher than those of their colleagues in the junior secondary schools in three of the four behaviours associated with assessment: #24, *diagnosing* students' achievements (discrepancy = .61); and #27, evaluating own performance (discrepancy = .57). None of the differences between the two sets of scores in the categories of interpersonal relationships and professional awareness was .50 or larger.

Discussion. The analysis of teachers' perceptions on the basis of the type of school in which teachers were working provided valuable insights into the apparent effectiveness of the teacher education programs. The divergent position taken by junior secondary teachers as opposed to teachers in primary and all-age schools, suggests that, as a group, junior secondary teachers were least satisfied with the adequacy of their preparation relative to the demands of their teaching situations. As primary and all-age school teachers had, for the most part, undergone the same program of training, their basically similar perspectives were to be expected. Where the perceptions of these two groups differed, specific mediating factors within the particular school situations appeared to be at work. Indeed, the differences observed in the perceptions of all three groups of teachers seemed to be closely related to contextual factors.

With regard to the area of lesson preparation, for example, junior secondary teachers seemed to feel that the work done in the specialist subject areas at college was not sufficiently related to the work actually done in the schools. One such teacher suggested in an interview that, in some subject areas, the preparation afforded by college courses was only suitable for the lower grades of the junior secondary school. In another interview, a teacher confessed that he was still unsure of what to teach children at different levels.

Further, several other teachers who were working in remedial situations acknowledged that their programs had not prepared them to select content and materials that would be of interest to their students and yet accessible to their academic levels.

While comments by primary and all-age school teachers about their preparation for selecting content, materials and aids were generally very positive, several such teachers also expressed certain difficulties in translating the knowledge of subject matter they themselves possessed to a level which would be comprehensible to children in the lower grades of schooling. One primary teacher suggested that their content courses could have been more directly related to the needs of children at this level. Another suggested that actual demonstration by college lecturers of how this transfer might be accomplished would have been of great assistance.

Differences of perspective between junior secondary and other teachers are even more marked in the area of classroom management, which elicited the most consistently low ratings by junior secondary teachers. In general, primary and all-age school teachers were most frequently based in one classroom or teaching area, with, to a large extent, the same group of children all day. They were, therefore, able to control their teaching environment to a much greater degree than junior secondary teachers, who, as a general rule, moved from classroom to classroom, teaching several different groups in the course of any given day. Nevertheless, some all-age school teachers, like those primary school teachers who worked in open-area schools, indicated that they had not been sufficiently prepared to deal with the demands of the situation in which they found themselves.

As regards grouping students for instruction, primary and all-age school teachers admitted to having learned most about this from their courses in reading methodology. Junior secondary teachers, on the other hand, perceived themselves as having received less specific preparation.

The large discrepancies discernible in the appraisals by various groups of teachers of their preparation in the area of classroom management are particularly worthy of note since all groups had participated in the same course which dealt with the principles and techniques of classroom management. It would appear that the strategies suggested in this course may be more relevant to the demands of the primary or all-age situation, than to those encountered in large junior or senior secondary schools. It may be necessary, therefore, for teacher educators to explore more fully those factors operating within the full range of Bahamian schools which may need to be more adequately addressed in their programs.

Though preparation for the behaviours associated with lesson presentation was acknowledged by all three groups of teachers as being the best overall, the significantly lower ratings by junior secondary teachers once again point to certain deficiencies which may exist within their programs. Certain such teachers claimed, in their reponses to open-ended questions, that some approaches presented in their programs were idealistic -- i.e., not sufficiently related to the everyday realities of school life. Conversely, some of the kinds of strategies they actually needed -- for example, remedial approaches in English and mathematics -- had not been provided.

This failure to provide sufficient strategies for dealing with lower-ability groups was commented upon by all levels of teachers. In their view, much of their preparation had been based on the concept of an "average" child -- usually one deemed "average" according to norms established in other, more advanced countries. These norms, teachers maintained, did not always apply in their contexts.

Finally, teachers in team-teaching primary schools stated that the teaching strategies suggested in methods courses were all geared towards instruction in the self-contained classroom, and were frequently not applicable to the team-teaching situation.

However, the overall perception by most teachers that their preparation in this aspect of teaching was comparatively strong was significant, since ten of the eleven behaviours included in this group were drawn from research studies which found them to be positively associated with increased student learning.

It may be speculated that certain of the weaknesses identified by teachers in relation to aspects of lesson presentation are related to the weaknesses that teachers perceived in their preparation for the various skills of assessment. All teachers interviewed expressed the view that they could have received more extensive preparation in the skills of diagnosis in order to be able to gear their teaching more to the actual needs of their students. Several of these teachers complained that the courses they did have in this area were too theoretical, and that a more practical, field-oriented approach would have made them more valuable to the practising teacher.

By contrast, the generally positive assessment by all groups of the preparation they had received for establishing good relationships with students -- particularly for the important behaviour of motivating students -- is gratifying. Nevertheless, the significantly lower ratings by junior secondary teachers in relation to the encouragement of students to develop self-respect suggests that these teachers perceive a need for more attention to be paid in preparation programs to the question of the adolescent self-image.

The uniformly low assessments of preparation for dealing with parents and other adults suggest that this is an area that has been neglected in programs followed by all groups. Junior secondary school teachers, in particular, who move into large, highly differentiated staffs and who are faced with having to relate productively to a wide variety of individuals, appear to feel this lack of preparation most keenly. In all-age and most primary schools, where staffs are smaller and more closely knit, this perception of need appears to be relatively less strong. Teachers in large, team-teaching primary schools, who might be considered as experiencing similar difficulties to those identified by junior secondary teachers, in effect appeared to function whithin relatively small self-contained work groups and to have little contact with other individuals in the school setting.

In sum, contextual factors seem to have considerable relationship to the way in which teachers judge the adequacy of their preparation. It will be recalled that teachers' views of their performance were also strongly related to such factors. Insights into the degree to which that performance appears to be related to the perceived adequacy of preparation are gained from a comparison of the two sets of scores.

Comparison of performance and preparation based on type of school. Tables 36, 37 and 38 present comparisons of teachers' ratings of their performance and their preparation classified by the types of schools in which respondents were working.

Table 36 reveals that primary school teachers rated their preparation higher than their performance in twenty-two of the thirty-seven items of teacher behaviour. They rated their performance higher in fourteen instances, and in one case (number 31, motivating students to learn) their ratings for performance and preparation were identical.

In terms of specific categories of behaviour, primary school teachers rated their preparation for behaviours associated with lesson preparation higher than their performance in every instance, and quite substantially so in three areas. These were: #4, selecting appropriate teaching materials (difference = -.38); #5, preparing appropriate teaching aids (difference = -.40); and #6, using community resources to enhance children's learning experiences (difference = -.65).

With regard to items classified under the heading of classroom management, primary teachers rated their preparation higher for three out of the six cases: #7, arranging the classroom environment (difference = -.35); #8, grouping students for instruction (difference = -.15); and #11, making efficient use of class time (difference = -.05). Performance was rated higher for the other three items, but all three differences were under .20.

In the area of lesson presentation, primary teachers provided higher ratings for their preparation in nine of the eleven behaviours. In one instance -- #19, using a variety of instructional techniques -- the difference between scores was larger than .50 (difference = -.63). In two other cases (#15, using Standard English appropriately, and #18, using effective questioning techniques) differences were fairly

Table 36

Comparison of Ratings of Performance and Preparation: Primary School Teachers (n = 21)

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Mean Rating Performance	Rank	Mean Rating Preparation	Rank	Difference
A. Lesson Preparation						
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	3.81	30.5*	4.05	27*	-.24
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	4.00	25.5*	4.24	12.5*	-.24
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	3.76	32.5*	4.05	27*	-.29
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	4.29	9*	4.67	1	-.38
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	4.05	21.5*	4.45	3	-.40
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	3.50	36	4.15	17*	-.65
B. Classroom Management						
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	3.95	27.5*	4.30	10	-.35
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	4.05	21.5*	4.15	17*	-.15
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	4.24	12.5*	4.20	14	.04
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	4.14	15*	4.00	29	.14
11. Making efficient use of class time	24*	4.00	25.5*	4.05	27*	-.05
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	3.71	34	3.65	34.5*	.06
C. Lesson Presentation						
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	3.90	29	3.95	31*	-.05
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	4.14	15*	4.15	17*	-.01
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	4.05	21.5*	4.35	7*	-.30
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	4.14	15*	3.95	31*	.19
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	4.24	12.5*	4.10	22	.14
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	4.05	21.5*	4.35	7*	-.30
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20*	3.62	35	4.25	11	-.63
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16.5*	4.09	17.5*	4.24	12.5*	-.15
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.29	9.5*	4.33	9	-.04
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	3.95	27.5*	4.09	24*	-.14
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.48	4*	4.52	2	-.04
D. Assessment						
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	3.76	32.5*	3.95	31*	-.19
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	4.05	21.5*	4.19	15	-.14
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	4.05	21.5*	4.09	24*	-.04
27. Evaluating own performance	11	3.81	30.5*	4.14	20*	-.33
E. Interpersonal Relationships						
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.48	4*	4.14	20*	.34
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.48	4*	4.09	24*	.39
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.43	6.5*	4.38	5	.05
31. Motivating students to learn	2	4.43	6.5*	4.43	4	.00
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	4.52	1.5*	4.35	7	.17
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.38	37	3.29	37	.09
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	4.52	1.5*	3.67	33	.85
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	4.09	17.5*	3.43	36	.66
36. Working well with school support staff	37	4.25	11	3.65	34.5*	.60
F. Professional Awareness						
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.38	8	4.14	20*	.24

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates the higher of mean ratings compared

pronounced: -.30 in each case. In the two instances in this category where primary school teachers rated their performance higher (#16, displaying enthusiasm, and #17, presenting information clearly) differences between scores were relatively small: lower than .20 in each case.

Preparation for all behaviours associated with assessment was rated higher than primary teachers' performance in those same behaviours. In the instance of item 27, evaluating own performance, the difference between scores was fairly large: -.33.

By contrast, in the category of interpersonal relationships, primary teachers rated their performance higher in eight of the nine behaviours, and substantially so in five of those cases. The largest differences between scores were observed in relation to the three items which referred to teachers' relationships with personnel within the school. However, fairly large discrepancies were also perceived in relation to #28, developing positive relationships with students (difference = .34) and #29, displaying warmth and caring for students (difference = .39). Differences between scores on the remaining items were small: lower than .20.

In the area of professional awareness, primary school teachers rated their performance higher by .24 than their preparation in that dimension of teaching.

Table 37 shows that junior secondary teachers rated their preparation higher than their performance in only five of the thirty-seven behaviours. In twenty-four cases, they rated their performance higher, and in eight cases there was no difference between the mean ratings provided.

Table 37

Comparison of Ratings of Performance and Preparation: Junior Secondary School Teachers (n = 7)

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Mean Rating Performance	Rank	Mean Rating Preparation	Rank	Difference
A. Lesson Preparation						
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	3.67	24*	3.50	23.5*	.17
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	3.67	24*	3.67	17.5*	.00
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	3.67	24*	3.50	23.5*	.17
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	3.67	24*	3.83	10	-.16
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	3.57	31*	3.86	7*	-.29
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	3.50	35*	3.29	30.5*	.21
B. Classroom Management						
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	3.86	14*	2.86	34.5*	1.00
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	3.17	37	2.86	34.5*	.31
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	3.57	31*	3.43	26.5*	.14
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	3.71	18.5*	3.43	26.5*	.28
11. Making efficient use of class time	24*	3.57	31*	3.57	20.5*	.00
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	3.71	18.5*	3.29	30.5*	.42
C. Lesson Presentation						
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	4.00	10.5*	3.67	17.5*	.33
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	3.57	31*	3.71	14*	-.14
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	3.86	14*	3.86	7*	.00
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	4.00	10.5*	3.71	14*	.29
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	3.86	14*	3.86	7*	.00
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	3.86	14*	3.71	14*	.15
19. Using a variety of instructional. techniques	20*	3.86	14*	4.14	4	-.28
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16.5*	3.57	31*	3.57	20.5*	.00
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.33	4*	4.17	2.5*	.16
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	4.17	7*	3.83	10*	.34
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.33	4*	4.33	1	.00
D. Assessment						
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	3.50	35*	3.50	23.5*	.00
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	3.50	35*	3.33	28.5*	.17
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	3.67	24*	3.50	23.5*	.17
27. Evaluating own performance	11	3.67	24*	3.67	17.5*	.00
E. Interpersonal Relationships						
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.17	7*	3.80	12	.37
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.57	1	4.00	5	.57
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.50	2	4.17	2.5*	.33
31. Motivating students to learn	2	3.67	24*	3.83	10	-.16
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	4.17	7*	3.33	28.5*	.84
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.67	24*	2.83	36	.84
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	4.14	9	3.00	32.5*	1.14
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	3.83	17	3.00	32.5*	.83
36. Working well with school support staff	37	3.67	24*	2.67	37	1.00
F. Professional Awareness						
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.33	4*	3.67	17.5*	.66

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates the higher of mean ratings compared

In the area of lesson preparation, junior secondary teachers rated their preparation higher in two instances: #4, selecting appropriate teaching materials (difference = -.16), and #5, preparing appropriate teaching aids (difference = -.29). They rated their performance higher in three cases: #1, selecting appropriate subject content (difference = .17), #3, using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities (difference = .17) and #6, using community resources to enhance children's learning experiences (difference = .21). In the remaining item, #2, specifying instructional objectives, the ratings provided for performance and preparation were identical.

In relation to behaviours associated with classroom management, while there was one item (#11, making efficient use of class time) where ratings provided for performance and preparation were identical, in all other instances junior secondary teachers rated their performance higher. Their rating of the performance in #7, arranging the classroom environment, was very substantially higher than that awarded to their preparation (difference = 1.00). Differences were quite large also in relation to #8, grouping students for instruction (difference = .31), and #12, keeping accurate records (difference = .42).

Four of the eleven items in the category of lesson presentation received identical mean ratings from junior secondary teachers for performance and preparation. These were: #15, using Standard English appropriately; #17, presenting information clearly; #20, individualizing instruction when necessary; and #23, using praise. In relation to two items (#14, displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter; and #19, using a variety of instructional techniques) preparation was rated somewhat higher: discrepancies were -.14, and -.28 respectively. On the remaining five items, junior secondary teachers provided higher ratings for their performance. No discrepancy was as large as .50, but differences between scores for #13, *approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner*, and #22, *building positively on students' ideas*, were fairly significant: .33 and .34 respectively.

In assessment, junior secondary teachers provided identical ratings for performance and preparation in two instances (#24, *diagnosing students' learning needs*, and #27, *evaluating own performance*). They rated their performance slightly higher in the other two behaviours (difference in each case: .17).

The largest number of significant differences were observed in relation to behaviours in the category of interpersonal relationships. Junior secondary teachers rated their preparation slightly higher in one instance: #31, *motivating students to learn* (difference = -.16). In all remaining eight items, they rated their performance substantially higher than their preparation -- in five cases, more than .50 higher. The largest differences between scores occurred in relation to #34, *working well with other teachers* (difference = 1.14), and #36, *working well with school support staff* (difference = 1.00). Other significant differences are found between teachers' ratings of their performance and preparation in #32, *encouraging students to develop self-respect* (difference = .84), #33, *communicating positively with parents* (difference = .84), #35, *working well with administrative staff* (difference = .83). The difference between scores on item 29, *displaying warmth and caring for students* was .57.

Junior secondary teachers rated their performance higher than preparation in the area of displaying concern for continuing professional development (difference = .66).

An examination of the data displayed in Table 38 reveals that all-age school teachers rated their preparation higher than their performance in fifteen of the thirty-seven behaviours. Ratings for performance were higher in eighteen instances, and in four cases scores for performance and preparation were identical.

In the area of lesson preparation, all-age school teachers rated their preparation higher in five of the six behaviours, and substantially so in four of those instances. In the remaining item, #3, using the knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities, they rated their performance higher than their preparation (difference = .33). In this category, the largest difference between scores (-.78) occurred in relation to item 4, selecting appropriate teaching materials, where all-age school teachers rated their preparation higher than their performance. The other three behaviours where discrepancies between scores were fairly large were: #2, specifying instructional objectives; #5, preparing appropriate teaching aids; #6, and using community resources to enhance children's learning experiences. Differences were: -.44, -.47, and -.43 respectively.

In all cases but one (#8, grouping students for instruction), all-age school teachers rated their preparation higher than their performance in the area of classroom management. In that one instance, teachers' performance was rated only slightly higher (difference = .19). In relation to item 9, maintaining classroom order, the difference between scores was larger than .50 (difference = -.58). Fairly large differences

Table 38

Comparison of Ratings of Performance and Preparation All-Age School Teachers (n = 9)

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Mean Rating Performance	Rank	Mean Rating Preparation	Rank	Difference
A. Lesson Preparation						
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	3.89	26*	4.00	23*	-.11
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	3.89	26*	4.33	9	-.44
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	4.33	8.5*	4.00	23*	.33
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	3.78	31.5*	4.56	4	-.78
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	3.78	31.5*	4.25	12*	-.47
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	3.86	29	4.29	10	-.43
B. Classroom Management						
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	4.33	8.5*	4.67	1	-.34
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	4.56	2.5*	4.37	7*	.19
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	3.67	35	4.25	12*	-.58
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	3.78	31.5*	4.00	23*	-.22
11. Making efficient use of class time	24*	4.00	21.5*	4.37	7*	-.37
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	3.62	37*	3.87	28	-.25
C. Lesson Presentation						
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	4.00	21.5*	4.37	7*	-.37
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	4.12	16.5*	4.50	5	-.38
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	4.25	11.5*	4.25	12*	.00
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	4.50	4	4.00	23*	.50
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	4.22	14*	4.11	17.5*	.11
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	4.00	21.5*	4.62	2.5*	-.62
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20*	3.75	34	4.62	2.5*	-.87
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16.5*	3.78	31.5*	4.00	23*	-.22
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.33	8.5*	4.22	14.5*	.11
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	4.00	21.5*	3.57	31	.43
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.12	16.5*	4.12	16	.00
D. Assessment						
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	4.11	18.5*	4.00	23*	.11
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	3.89	26*	3.33	34*	.56
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	4.11	18.5*	4.11	17.5*	.00
27. Evaluating own performance	11	4.22	14*	4.22	14.5*	.00
E. Interpersonal Relationships						
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.44	5.5*	4.00	23*	.44
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.44	5.5*	3.78	29.5*	.66
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.62	1	4.00	23*	.62
31. Motivating students to learn	2	4.33	8.5*	4.00	23*	.33
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	4.22	14*	3.78	29.5*	.44
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.89	26*	2.89	37	1.00
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	3.89	26*	3.37	33	.52
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	4.25	11.5*	3.22	35	1.03
36. Working well with school support staff	37	3.62	36.5*	3.12	36	.50
F. Professional Awareness						
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.56	2.5*	3.56	32	1.00

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates the higher of mean ratings compared

were also observed in relation to #7, arranging the classroom environment (difference = -.34), and #11, making efficient use of class time (difference = -.37).

Ratings provided by all-age school teachers for preparation in items related to lesson presentation were higher than those awarded to their performance in five of the eleven instances. In two of those cases (numbers 18 and 19) preparation was rated more than .50 higher. (differences = -.62 and -.87 respectively). In two cases, (#15, using Standard English appropriately, and #23, using praise), ratings provided for performance and preparation were the same. All-age school teachers rated their performance higher in the remaining four items. In one of those cases, #16, displaying enthusiasm, the difference between scores was .50. The difference between ratings for item 22, building positively on students' items, was .43. The two other differences were small.

All-age school teachers awarded identical mean ratings to their performance and preparation in items 26 (evaluating students' achievements) and 27 (evaluating own performance), but rated their performance higher in the other two behaviours. The difference between those ratings was substantial (.56) in relation to #25, monitoring students' progress. The difference between scores in #24, diagnosing students' learning needs, was quite small: .11.

In all items in the category of interpersonal relationships, all-age school teachers rated their performance significantly higher than their preparation. In six instances, the differences between scores were .50 or larger. In two of those cases, #33, communicating positively with parents, and #35, working well with administrative staff, discrepancies were 1.00 and 1.03 respectively. Other substantial differences were observed between ratings for items 29, displaying warmth and caring for students (difference = .66), 30, displaying acceptance of students as individuals (difference = .62), #34, working well with other teachers (difference = .52), and #36, working well with school support staff (difference = .50).

All-age school teachers' ratings of their performance in displaying concern for continuing professional development (#37) was markedly higher than that awarded their preparation (difference = 1.00).

With regard to behaviours considered to be most important, differences can be seen in the perceptions of the three groups of teachers. In relation to #1, selecting appropriate subject content, primary and all-age school teachers rated their preparation slightly higher than their performance (differences = -.24 and -.11 respectively), while junior secondary teachers rated their performance somewhat higher than their preparation (difference = .17).

In the case of item 3, using the knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities, both all-age and junior secondary school teachers provided higher ratings for performance than for their preparation (differences = .33 and .17 respectively). Primary school teachers rated their preparation higher (difference = -.29).

All-age and junior secondary school teachers rated their performance in grouping students for instruction (#8) higher than their preparation (differences = .19 and .31 respectively). Primary school teachers rated their preparation higher (difference = .35).

In relation to item 17, presenting information clearly, junior secondary teachers provided identical ratings for performance and preparation, while primary and all-age teachers rated their performance slightly higher (differences = .14 and .11 respectively).

For item 24, diagnosing students' learning needs, primary school teachers rated their preparation slightly higher than their performance difference = -.19). All-age school teachers rated their performance slightly higher (difference = .11), and junior secondary school teachers provided mean ratings for performance and preparation which were identical.

With regard to item 31, motivating students to learn, there was no difference between the ratings provided by primary school teachers for their performance and their preparation. Junior secondary school teachers rated their preparation somewhat higher than their performance (difference = -.16), and all-age school teachers rated their performance substantially higher than their preparation (difference = .33).

Discussion. Earlier in this chapter, when the ratings awarded by teachers in general to their performance were compared with the ratings assigned to their preparation, the latter was seen to have been rated higher in half of the cases (eighteen out of thirty-seven). The comparison of teachers' ratings of their performance and preparation on the basis of the type of school in which teachers were working provides more discriminating insights into the relationships which appear to exist between teachers' perceptions of their performance and those of their preparation.

Primary school teachers, for example, appeared generally to view themselves as performing in many instances at levels of proficiency lower than those achieved by their preparation. This is particularly marked in aspects of behaviour relative to lesson preparation. One is led to question why they appear to feel that they are unable to use the training provided to the best advantage. There would seem to be two possible sources of explanation: either there are strong mediating factors within the school setting which militate against the application of principles learned to real situations, or on the other hand there may be a missing component in an otherwise good program -- the demonstration of how the translation of theory into practice might be accomplished. In responses provided to open-ended questions and in interviews, primary teachers suggested both possibilities. It is likely that a combination of both factors may be at work.

The findings in relation to junior secondary teachers suggest that, in large measure, these teachers feel that they are performing better than they have been prepared to do, and they raise serious questions about the adequacy of the program which such teachers now follow. Their own perception of a need for more extensive preparation in certain of the specifically professional aspects of their work would seem to support this concern. It is instructive, further, to examine the areas of performance where junior secondary teachers appear to be doing substantially better than their programs prepared them to do. In several aspects of classroom management, for example, there are significant differences between junior secondary teachers' perceptions of their preparation and their performance. Two tentative conclusions may be drawn from this fact: (1) that the preparation afforded junior secondary school teachers in this area does not take sufficiently into account the realities of the situations in which they will be called upon to function, and (2) that to some considerable extent, skills of this nature are developed on the job or incidentally in other aspects of their lives. This appears to be less the case in relation to aspects of lesson presentation and assessment, where teachers' perceptions of their performance reflect more closely their perceptions of their preparation.

All-age school teachers generally perceived their preparation to be considerably better than their performance in aspects of teacher behaviour other than assessment and interpersonal relationships. Once again, specific factors within their teaching situations seem to diminish the impact their preparation is able to have upon their performance. However, it may also be argued that if preparation cannot be transferred to actual school situations this may itself represent a weakness in that preparation, in which more adaptive strategies may need to be included.

It appears to be clear from the perspectives of all three groups of teachers that successful relationships with people are perceived as being less a function of preparation received in this area than of the personality and attitudes of teachers themselves or of abilities developed in other aspects of their lives.

In order to ascertain the extent to which the type of academic program followed by teachers might be related to their perceptions concerning the adequacy of their preparation, further analysis of responses was carried out on this basis.

Comparison of Teachers' Ratings of Their Preparation on the Basis of Type of Program Followed

It is wise to reiterate the reservation stated in Chapter 5, where consideration was given to teachers' perceptions of their performance on the basis of this same variable: since the distribution of teachers in the two groups is so disproportionate (thirty-one in the non-associate degree group and six in the other), conclusions drawn from findings must be advanced with due caution.

Findings. An examination of the data presented in Table 39 demonstrates that teachers with an associate degree provided ratings which on the average fell between 4 (well) and 5 (very well) on the five-point scale for twenty-five of the thirty-seven items. The remaining twelve mean ratings fell between 3 (adequately) and 4 (well). Teachers without an associate degree on the average rated their preparation at points between 4 (well) and 5 (very well) on the scale for twenty-two of the thirty-seven behaviours, and between 3 (adequately) and 4 (well) for fifteen. No mean rating provided by either group fell below the 3 point mark.

Associate degree teachers assigned their highest rating (mean = 4.50) to the following behaviours: #15, using Standard English appropriately, #21, encouraging students to participate in class, and #30, displaying acceptance of students as individuals. Non-associate degree teachers awarded their highest rating (mean = 4.53) to #4, selecting appropriate teaching materials. Next highest ratings were provided for #23, using praise (mean = 4.41), and #19, using a variety of instructional techniques (mean = 4.38).

Table 39

Comparison of Teachers' Ratings of Preparation Classified by Type of College Program Followed

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Mean Rating of Teachers With Associate Degree n = 6	Rank	Mean Rating Teachers Without Associate Degree n = 31	Rank	Discrepancy
A. Lesson Preparation						
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	3.50	31.5*	4.03	19*	-.53
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	3.67	28*	4.27	6.5*	-.60
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	4.33	6*	3.87	31	.46
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	4.33	6*	4.53	1	-.20
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	4.17	13*	4.31	5	-.14
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	4.17	13*	3.96	25.5*	.21
B. Classroom Management						
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	4.00	21.5*	4.13	12	-.13
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	4.17	13*	3.89	29.5*	.27
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	4.33	6*	4.00	21.5*	.33
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	3.83	26	3.89	29.5*	-.06
11. Making efficient use of class time	24*	4.00	21.5*	4.03	19*	-.03
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	4.17	13*	3.52	34	.65
C. Lesson Presentation						
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	4.17	13*	3.96	25.5*	.21
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	4.17	13*	4.14	11	.03
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	4.50	2*	4.17	10	.33
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	4.17	13*	3.86	32	.31
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	4.17	13*	4.03	19*	.14
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	4.00	21.5*	4.34	4	-.34
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20*	4.00	21.5*	4.38	3	-.38
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16.5*	4.00	21.5*	4.07	15.5*	-.07
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.50	2*	4.23	8	.27
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	3.50	31.5*	4.04	17	-.54
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.33	6*	4.41	2	-.08
D. Assessment						
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	3.50	31.5*	3.97	23.5*	-.47
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	3.50	31.5*	3.90	27.5*	-.40
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	3.67	28	4.07	15.5*	-.40
27. Evaluating own performance	11	4.00	21.5*	4.10	13.5*	-.10
E. Interpersonal Relationships						
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.33	6*	4.00	21.5*	.33
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.17	13*	3.97	23.5*	.20
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.50	2*	4.21	9	.29
31. Motivating students to learn	2	4.00	21.5*	4.27	6.5*	-.27
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	3.67	28*	4.10	13.5*	-.43
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.33	34.5*	3.07	37	.26
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	3.17	36.5*	3.55	33	-.38
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	3.17	36.5*	3.33	36	-.16
36. Working well with school support staff	37	3.33	34.5*	3.36	35	-.03
F. Professional Awareness						
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.00	21.5*	3.90	27.5*	.10

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates the higher of mean ratings compared

The lowest mean rating (mean = 3.17) was provided by associate degree teachers for two items: #34, working well with other teachers, and #35, working well with administrative staff. Non-associate degree teachers rated their preparation in communicating positively with parents (#33) lowest of all (mean = 3.07).

Both groups of teachers provided ratings which were consistently high in the areas of lesson presentation and lesson preparation. Lowest overall ratings were provided for aspects of interpersonal relationships.

Of the mean ratings awarded to those six behaviours judged by teachers and supervisors to be of greatest importance (numbers 1, 3, 8, 17, 24, 31), the highest (mean = 4.33) was assigned by associate degree teachers to #3, using the knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities, ranked fourth in importance and sixth in order of preparation effectiveness. Ratings provided by associate degree teachers for the five other most important behaviours were considerably lower, with the lowest (mean = 3.50) being assigned to items #1, selecting appropriate subject content, and #24, diagnosing students' learning needs, ranked first and third in importance.

For their part, non-associate degree teachers provided their highest rating among these six behaviours to #31, motivating students to learn, ranked second in importance. This was awarded a mean rating of 4.27 and ranked 6.5 in overall program effectiveness. The lowest rating provided by non-associate degree teachers in this group of most important behaviours (mean = 3.87) went to #3, using the knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities, ranked fourth in overall importance but thirty-first in overall effectiveness. Ratings of preparation in the other most important behaviours were also placed among the lower ranks of program effectiveness.

In twenty-one out of thirty-seven behaviours, non-associate degree teachers awarded higher ratings to their preparation than did those teachers with associate degrees. In three cases, the differences between scores were larger than .50: #1, *selecting appropriate subject content* (discrepancy = -.53); #2, *specifying instructional objectives* (discrepancy - =.60); and #22, *building positively on students' ideas* (discrepancy = -.54). In four other instances, non-associate degree teachers' ratings were higher by .40 or more: #24, *diagnosing students' learning needs* (discrepancy = -.47); #25, *monitoring students' progress* (discrepancy = -.40); #36, *evaluating students' achievements* (discrepancy = -.40); and #32, *encouraging students to develop self-respect* (discrepancy = .43). Other differences were smaller in value.

Of the sixteen cases where associate degree teachers provided higher ratings, only one difference between scores was larger than .50. This occurred in relation to #12, *keeping accurate records* (discrepancy = .65). One other was larger than .40: #3, *using the knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities* (discrepancy = .46).

Discussion. The first tentative generalization that might be drawn from the foregoing findings appears to be that non-associate degree teachers seem, on the whole, to rate their preparation somewhat more favourably than did associate degree teachers. Further, non-associate degree teachers seem to perceive that they had been best prepared in the methodological aspects of teaching. Associate degree teachers, on the other hand, appear to perceive their preparation to have been stronger in the knowledge dimension, and in strategies for establishing productive relationships with students. However, since relatively few differences between the perceptions of the two groups were significantly large, it is difficult to draw meaningful conclusions concerning which type of program might be considered to be more effective. Nevertheless, the more favourable perceptions of non-associate degree teachers concerning the specifically professional aspects of the program might suggest that they are likely to have received more preparation in those areas which were directly applicable to their teaching situations.

A comparison of the ratings provided by these groups of teachers for performance and preparation provides additional insights concerning the degree to which teachers' perceptions of their preparation appeared to be related to their perceptions of their own competence.

Comparison of teachers' ratings of performance and preparation on the basis of program followed. Table 40 presents a comparison of the scores awarded for performance and preparation by teachers with associate degrees. In twenty-one instances, these teachers rated their performance higher than their preparation. Differences between scores in seven of those cases were .50 or more. The items concerned were: #1, selecting appropriate subject content (difference = .50); #25, monitoring students' progress (difference = .50); #29, displaying warmth and caring for students (difference = .50); #32, encouraging students to develop self-respect (difference = .50); #34, working well with other teachers (difference = .83); #35, working well with administrative staff (difference = .66); and #36, working well with school support staff (difference = .84).

Table 40

Comparison of Ratings of Performance and Preparation Teachers With Associate Degree (n = 6)

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Mean Rating Performance	Rank	Mean Rating Preparation	Rank	Difference
A. Lesson Preparation						
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	4.00	24*	3.50	31.5*	.50
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	3.67	35*	3.67	28*	.00
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	4.33	9*	4.33	6*	.00
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	4.50	3.5*	4.33	6*	.17
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	4.33	9*	4.17	13*	.16
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	3.83	30.5*	4.17	13*	-.34
B. Classroom Management						
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	4.17	16.5*	4.00	21.5*	.17
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	4.17	16.5*	4.17	13*	.00
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	4.00	24*	4.33	6*	-.33
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	3.67	35*	3.83	26	-.16
11. Making efficient use of class time	24*	3.83	30.5*	4.00	21.5*	-.17
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	4.00	24*	4.17	13*	-.17
C. Lesson Presentation						
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	4.00	24*	4.17	13*	-.17
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	4.33	9*	4.17	13*	.16
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	4.33	9*	4.50	2*	-.17
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	4.33	9*	4.17	13*	.16
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	4.17	16.5*	4.17	13*	.00
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	4.00	24*	4.00	21.5*	.00
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20*	3.67	35*	4.00	21.5*	-.33
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16.5*	4.17	16.5*	4.00	21.5*	.17
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.33	9*	4.50	2*	-.17
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	3.67	35*	3.50	31.5*	.17
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.33	9*	4.33	6*	.00
D. Assessment						
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	3.83	30.5*	3.50	31.5*	.33
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	4.00	24*	3.50	31.5*	.50
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	4.00	24*	3.67	28*	.33
27. Evaluating own performance	11	4.00	24*	4.00	21.5*	.00
E. Interpersonal Relationships						
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.50	3.5*	4.33	6*	.17
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.67	1.5*	4.17	13*	.50
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.67	1.5*	4.50	2*	.17
31. Motivating students to learn	2	4.33	9*	4.00	21.5*	.33
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	4.17	16.5*	3.67	28*	.50
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.67	35*	3.33	34.5*	.34
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	4.00	24*	3.17	36.5*	.83
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	3.83	30.5*	3.17	36.5*	.66
36. Working well with school support staff	37	4.17	16.5*	3.33	34.5*	.84
F. Professional Awareness						
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.33	16.5*	4.00	21.5*	.33

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates the higher of mean ratings compared

There were also seven instances where mean ratings assigned by associate degree teachers were the same for performance and preparation. These were: #2, specifying instructional objectives; #3, using the knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities; #8, grouping students for instruction; #17, presenting information clearly; #18, using effective questioning techniques; #23, using praise; and #27, evaluating own performance.

In the remaining nine cases, associate degree teachers provided higher mean ratings for their preparation than for their performance. In no instance was the difference between scores .50 or greater. Largest differences were observed in relation to #6, using community resources to enhance children's learning experiences (difference = -.34); and #9, maintaining classroom order (difference = -.33).

In general, associate degree teachers rated their performance higher in the areas of lesson preparation and interpersonal relationships. Preparation was rated higher in the areas of classroom management and lesson presentation. In reference to the two of the most important behaviours not already mentioned, #24, diagnosing students' learning needs and #31, motivating students to learn, associate degree teachers rated their performance higher by .33 in each case.

Table 41 displays the comparative mean ratings for performance and preparation provided by non-associate degree teachers. As can be seen, these teachers rated their performance higher in sixteen of the thirty-seven items. Among these, differences between scores were .50 or higher in four instances. These were: #34, working well with other teachers; (difference = .81); #35, working well with administrative

Table 41

Comparison of Ratings of Performance and Preparation Teachers Without Associate Degree (n = 31)

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Mean Rating of Performance	Rank	Mean Rating of Preparation	Rank	Difference
A. Lesson Preparation						
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	3.77	33	4.03	19*	-.26
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	3.97	21.5*	4.27	6.5*	-.30
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	3.80	31.5*	3.87	31	-.07
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	3.97	21.5*	4.53	1	-.56
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	3.81	30	4.31	5	-.50
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	3.52	37	3.96	25.5*	-.44
B. Classroom Management						
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	4.00	17*	4.13	12	-.13
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	4.00	17*	3.89	29.5*	.11
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	3.97	21.5*	4.00	21.5*	-.03
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	4.03	14	3.89	29.5*	.14
11. Making efficient use of class time	24*	3.94	25	4.03	19*	-.09
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	3.63	35	3.52	34	.11
C. Lesson Presentation						
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	3.93	26	3.96	25.5*	-.03
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	3.97	21.5*	4.14	11	-.17
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	4.00	17*	4.17	10	-.17
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	4.17	10	3.86	32	.31
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	4.16	11	4.03	19*	.13
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	4.00	17*	4.34	4	-.34
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20*	3.70	34	4.38	3	-.68
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16.5*	3.87	28.5*	4.07	15.5*	-.20
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.30	8	4.23	8	.07
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	4.07	13	4.04	17	.03
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.38	6	4.41	2	-.03
D. Assessment						
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	3.80	31.5*	3.97	23.5*	-.17
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	3.90	27	3.90	27.5*	.00
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	4.00	17*	4.07	15.5*	-.07
27. Evaluating own performance	11	3.87	28.5*	4.10	13.5*	-.23
E. Interpersonal Relationships						
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.40	5	4.00	21.5*	.40
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.45	1.5*	3.97	23.5*	.48
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.45	1.5*	4.21	9	.24
31. Motivating students to learn	2	4.27	9	4.27	6.5*	.00
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	4.43	3.5*	4.10	13.5*	.33
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.53	36	3.07	37	.46
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	4.36	7	3.55	33	.81
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	4.14	12	3.33	36	.81
36. Working well with school support staff	37	3.96	24	3.36	35	.60
F. Professional Awareness						
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.43	3.5*	3.90	27.5	.53

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates the higher of mean ratings compared

staff (difference = .81); #36, working well with school support staff (difference = .60); and #37, displaying concern for continuing professional development (difference = .53).

Non-associate degree teachers rated their preparation higher in relation to nineteen items. In three instances differences between scores were .50 or higher. These were: #4, selecting appropriate teaching materials (difference = -.56); #5, preparing appropriate teaching aids (difference = -.50); and #19, using a variety of instructional techniques (difference = -.68). Mean scores for performance and preparation were identical for #25, monitoring students' progress, and #31, motivating students to learn. Besides the identical rating for performance and preparation in relation to number 31, which was rated second in overall importance, differences between scores awarded to performance and preparation for the remaining five most important behaviours were generally not large. Non-associate degree teachers rated their performance slightly higher in two cases: #8, grouping students for instruction (difference = .11); and #17, presenting information clearly (difference = .13). Preparation was rated somewhat higher in relation to #1, selecting appropriate subject content (difference = -.26); #3, using the knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities (difference = -.07); and #24, diagnosing students' learning needs (difference = -.17).

Overall, mean scores for performance were consistently higher in the categories of interpersonal relationships, professional awareness. Preparation was rated consistently higher in relation to lesson preparation, assessment.

Discussion. The small differences between ratings provided for performance and preparation in the areas of lesson preparation, classroom management, and lesson presentation suggest that associate degree teachers perceived themselves to be performing at a level commensurate with the level of preparation they had received. This was generally viewed to have been good. However, there were areas where they believed they were performing well even though, in their opinion, their teacher education programs had not provided very extensive preparation. This was especially true in regard to their ability to select subject matter, demonstrate warmth in their relationships with students, and generally to encourage students' personal development. In reference to teachers' dealings with students, one associate degree teacher indicated in an interview that while the program had stressed the importance of relating well with students, it had focused more on the teacher as an authority figure, efficiently imparting information. However, since most of the associate degree teachers were working with adolescents in secondary school, they were very conscious of the importance of bolstering the self-image of their students -- many of whom had been labelled as failures in the prevailing educational system.

A similar perspective is visible in the ratings of non-associate degree teachers on the same aspects of teaching. These individuals, too, rated their performance in establishing meaningful relationships with students somewhat more favourably than their preparation in that area. On the whole, however, non-associate degree teachers seemed to view the training they had received in most dimensions of lesson preparation, assessment and lesson presentation more positively than their own performance. Though some differences between scores were quite modest, one might tentatively conclude that non-associate degree teachers found their preparation on the whole more adequate and suited to their needs than did their associate degree colleagues.

Comparison of Teachers' Ratings of Their Preparation on the Basis of Previous Teaching Experience

The final variable which formed the basis for additional analysis of teachers' responses was the amount of teaching experience respondents had had prior to entering the College of The Bahamas. For this purpose, as described in Chapter 5, respondents were considered in two groups: those who had had some teaching experience before entering college and those who had none.

Findings. Table 42 reveals that teachers with prior experience rated their preparation higher than did colleagues who had none in thirty-one out of thirty-seven behaviours. In five of those instances, differences between scores were larger than .50, and in another two cases, differences were larger than .40.

When the ratings of teachers with prior teaching experience were higher, the largest discrepancies between the scores of the two groups were observed in relation to the following behaviours: #33, communicating positively with parents (discrepancy = .72); #25, monitoring students' progress (discrepancy = .63); #12, keeping accurate records (discrepancy = .62); #34, working well with other teachers (discrepancy = .62); and #24, diagnosing students' learning needs (discrepancy = .53). Smallest differences when the ratings of

Table 42

Comparison of Teachers' Ratings of Preparation Classified by Previous Teaching Experience

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Mean Rating of Teachers With Previous Experience n = 15	Rank	Mean Rating of Teachers Without Previous Experience n = 22	Rank	Discrepancy
A. Lesson Preparation						
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	3.93	32.5*	3.95	10.5*	-.02
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	4.13	21	4.19	7.5*	-.06
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	3.93	32.5*	3.95	16.5*	-.02
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	4.40	4.5*	4.57	1	-.17
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	4.40	4.5*	4.20	5.5*	.20
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	4.14	18	3.90	21*	.24
B. Classroom Management						
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	4.33	8.5*	3.95	16.5*	.38
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	4.13	21*	3.80	28	.33
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	4.07	26*	4.05	12*	.02
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	4.07	26*	3.75	29	.32
11. Making efficient use of class time	24*	4.00	30*	4.05	12*	-.05
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	4.00	30*	3.58	33	.62
C. Lesson Presentation						
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	4.13	21*	3.89	24	.24
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	4.27	12	4.05	12*	.22
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	4.40	4.5*	4.10	9	.30
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	4.00	30*	3.85	26.5*	.15
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	4.20	15.5*	3.95	16.5*	.25
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	4.40	4.5*	4.20	5.5*	.20
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20*	4.33	8.5*	4.30	3.5*	.03
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16.5*	4.13	21*	4.00	4	.13
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.40	4.5*	4.19	7.5*	.21
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	4.07	26*	3.85	26.5*	.22
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.50	1	4.33	2	.17
D. Assessment						
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	4.20	15.5*	3.67	31	.53
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	4.20	15.5*	3.57	32	.63
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	4.13	21*	3.90	21*	.23
27. Evaluating own performance	11	4.27	12*	3.95	16.5*	.32
E. Interpersonal Relationships						
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.27	12*	3.90	21*	.37
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.07	26*	3.95	16.5*	.12
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.20	15.5*	4.30	3.5*	-.10
31. Motivating students to learn	2	4.40	4.5*	4.09	10	.31
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	4.29	10	3.86	24	.43
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.53	36.5*	2.81	37	.72
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	3.86	34	3.24	34	.62
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	3.53	36.5*	3.14	36	.39
36. Working well with school support staff	37	3.64	35	3.15	35	.49
F. Professional Awareness						
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.07	26*	3.81	29	.26

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates the higher of mean ratings compared

teachers with prior experience were higher were observed in relation to #9, maintaining classroom order (discrepancy = .02); and #19, using a variety of instructional techniques (discrepancy = .03). When the ratings of teachers with prior experience were higher, differences between scores were consistently largest in relation to behaviours in assessment and interpersonal relationships.

Teachers without prior experience rated their preparation higher than did those with such experience in six cases. All of the differences between scores were small, however, with none exceeding .20. The six items in question were: #1, selecting appropriate subject content (discrepancy = -.02); #2, specifying instructional objectives (discrepancy = -.06); #3, using the knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities (discrepancy = -.02); #4, selecting appropriate teaching materials (discrepancy = -.17); #11, making efficient use of class time (discrepancy = -.05); and #30, displaying acceptance of students as individuals (discrepancy = -.10).

In terms of actual mean values, teachers with previous teaching experience provided thirty-one ratings which fell between 4 (well) and 5 (very well) on the five-point scale. Of these, the highest rating (mean = 4.50) was awarded to #23, using praise. Teachers with prior experience assigned ratings which fell on average between 3 (adequately) and 4 (well) on the scale in the remaining six behaviours. Lowest ratings were provided for #33, communicating positively with parents and #35, working well with administrative staff (means = 3.53 in each instance).

In relation to those six behaviours ranked highest in overall importance. Teachers with prior experience provided highest ratings for #31, motivating students to learn (mean = 4.40), #24, diagnosing students' learning needs (mean = 4.20), and #17, presenting information clearly (mean = 4.20), and #8, grouping students for instruction (mean = 4.13). Ratings for the remaining two behaviours (numbers 1 and 3) were 3.93 in each case.

The categories of behaviours in which mean ratings of teachers with prior experience were consistently highest were lesson presentation and assessment.

Teachers without previous experience provided fourteen mean ratings which fell between 4 (well) and 5 (very well) on the five-point scale. Of these the highest (mean = 4.57) was awarded to #4, selecting appropriate teaching materials. Twenty-two of the mean ratings provided by teachers without prior experience were placed at points between 3 (adequately) and 4 (well) on the five-point scale. The remaining item (number 33, communicating positively with parents) was assigned a mean rating of 2.81.

In relation to the six most important behaviours, teachers without prior experience provided the highest rating (4.09) for item 31, motivating students to learn. Items 1, 3 and 17 all received ratings of 3.95. Number 8, grouping students for instruction, received a rating of 3.80, while the lowest rating (mean = 3.67) was assigned to #24, diagnosing students' learning needs.

The mean ratings assigned by teachers without prior experience were consistently highest in the area of lesson preparation. They also provided relatively high ratings for behaviour associated with lesson presentation.

Discussion. The foregoing results indicate that teachers with experience in teaching prior to entering college generally viewed their preparation substantially more favourably than did those without. This suggests that training experiences are likely to have more meaning to persons who can relate principles learned to some real frame of reference.

The significantly higher ratings of teachers in aspects of teacher behaviour associated with assessment and lesson presentation would seem to support this, for these have emerged among most sub-groups as being areas of teaching where the adequacy of teachers' performance appears to be highly related to the adequacy of their preparation.

With specific reference to those behaviours judged most important, teachers with previous experience generally viewed their preparation more positively than those without.

The more favourable assessment of their preparation by teachers with experience in teaching prior to training would seem to support the suggestion made in interviews by several supervisors: that all prospective teachers should be required to spend a year in the schools as teachers' assistants prior to beginning their teacher education programs. Such an arrangement is not likely to be feasible, however, and carries the inherent danger than these individuals might actually be used as classroom teachers in the event of staff absence or shortage. However, there appear to be practicable alternatives for the teacher education program: (1) training experiences might be reorganized so as to allow courses which deal with theoretical principles of teaching to be taught in direct reference to real classroom situations (this procedure might be negotiated with cooperative school principals); and

(2) more extensive or more frequent periods of teaching practice might be provided, during the course of which specific guidelines could be given to student teachers as to how to apply theories learned in actual classroom settings.

The relationship between preparation and performance as perceived by teachers with and without prior experience can be seen when their ratings for their performance and preparation are compared.

Comparison of teachers' ratings of performance and preparation based on previous teaching experience. Tables 43 and 44 present comparative ratings provided for their performance and preparation by teachers with experience in teaching prior to training and those without.

Table 43 reveals that teachers with previous experience, on the average, assigned more positive ratings for their preparation than for their performance in twenty-one of the thirty-seven behaviours. In four of those instances, differences between scores were substantial: two larger than .50 and two larger than .40. The most significant differences were observed in relation to items 6, using community resources to enhance students' learning experiences (difference = -.57), and 19, using a variety of instructional techniques (differences = -.53). Smallest differences (-.06 in each case) were perceived in relation to items 2, (specifying instructional objectives), 20, (individualizing instruction when necessary), and 26 (evaluating students' achievements).

For thirteen of the behaviours, more experienced teachers rated their performance higher than their preparation. Most of these fell in the categories of interpersonal relationships and professional awareness. Differences between mean ratings provided for four behaviours were .50

Table 43

Comparison of Ratings of Performance and Preparation Teachers With Previous Experience (n = 15)

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Mean Rating of Performance	Rank	Mean Rating of Preparation	Rank	Difference
A. Lesson Preparation						
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	3.73	35.5*	3.93	32.5*	-.20
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5*	4.07	21.5*	4.13	21*	-.06
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	3.93	30.5*	3.93	32.5*	.00
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	4.13	16.5*	4.40	4.5*	-.27
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	4.00	27*	4.40	4.5*	-.40
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	3.57	37	4.14	18	-.57
B. Classroom Management						
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	4.07	21.5*	4.33	8.5*	-.26
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	3.73	35.5*	4.13	21*	-.40
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	3.93	30.5*	4.07	26*	-.14
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	4.07	21.5*	4.07	26*	.00
11. Making efficient use of class time	24*	3.87	33	4.00	30*	-.13
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	3.93	30.5*	4.00	30*	-.07
C. Lesson Presentation						
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	4.00	27*	4.13	21*	-.13
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	4.07	21.5*	4.27	12*	-.20
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	4.27	14	4.40	4.5*	-.13
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	4.33	12*	4.00	30*	.33
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	4.33	12*	4.20	15.5*	.13
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	4.20	15	4.40	4.5*	-.20
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20*	3.80	34	4.33	8.5*	-.53
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16.5*	4.07	21.5*	4.13	21*	-.06
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.33	12*	4.40	4.5*	-.07
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	4.07	21.5*	4.07	26*	.00
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.64	3	4.50	1	.14
D. Assessment						
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	4.07	21.5*	4.20	15.5*	-.13
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	4.13	16.5*	4.20	15.5*	-.07
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	4.07	21.5*	4.13	21*	-.06
27. Evaluating own performance	11	4.00	27*	4.27	12*	-.27
E. Interpersonal Relationships						
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.60	4.5*	4.27	12*	.33
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.60	4.5*	4.07	26*	.53
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.53	6	4.20	15.5*	.33
31. Motivating students to learn	2	4.47	9.5*	4.40	4.5*	.07
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20	4.73	1	4.29	10	.44
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.93	30.5*	3.53	36.5*	.40
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	4.67	2	3.86	34	.81
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	4.50	7.5*	3.53	36.5*	.97
36. Working well with school support staff	27	4.50	7.5*	3.64	35	.86
F. Professional Awareness						
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.47	9.5*	4.07	26*	.40

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates the higher of mean ratings compared

or higher. Three other discrepancies were higher than .40. The largest differences between ratings when more experienced teachers perceived their performance to be higher were discerned in relation to #35, working well with administrative staff (difference = .97); #36, working well with school support staff (difference = .86); and #34, working well with other teachers (difference = .81). The lowest difference was observed in relation to #31, motivating students to learn (difference = .07).

Identical mean ratings were awarded to performance and preparation by teachers with prior experience in three instances: #3, using the knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities; #10, taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary; and #22, building positively on students' ideas.

In reference to those behaviours ranked among the most important, apart from those already mentioned (#3 and #31), teachers with prior experience rated their preparation higher than their performance in three cases: #1, selecting appropriate subject content (difference = -.20); #8, grouping students for instruction (difference = -.40); and #24, diagnosing students' learning needs (difference = -.13). Their performance was rated highest in one instance: #17, presenting information clearly (difference = .13).

Table 44 shows that teachers without previous teaching experience rated their preparation higher for sixteen of the thirty-seven behaviours. In two of these cases, differences between scores were larger than .50. These were: #4, selecting appropriate teaching materials (difference = -.57); and #19, using a variety of instructional techniques (difference = -.68). In four other cases (items 2, 5, 6 and

Table 44

Comparison of Ratings of Performance and Preparation Teachers Without Previous Experience (n = 22)

	Overall Ranking in Importance	Mean Rating of Performance	Rank	Mean Rating of Preparation	Rank	Difference
A. Lesson Preparation						
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	3.86	24*	3.95	16.5*	-.09
2. Specifying instructional objectives	13.5	3.81	29*	4.19	7.5*	-.38
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4	3.86	24*	3.95	16.5*	-.09
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	7.5*	4.00	14.5*	4.57	1	-.57
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	26	3.82	26.5*	4.20	5.5*	-.38
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	29.5*	3.58	35	3.90	21*	-.32
B. Classroom Management						
7. Arranging the classroom environment	20*	4.00	14.5*	3.95	16.5*	.05
8. Grouping students for instruction	5.5*	4.24	6	3.80	28	.44
9. Maintaining classroom order	7.5*	4.00	14.5*	4.05	12*	-.05
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	13.5*	3.91	20	3.75	29	.16
11. Making efficient use of class time	24*	3.95	18*	4.05	12*	-.10
12. Keeping accurate records	16.5*	3.54	36	3.38	33	.16
C. Lesson Presentation						
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	34.5*	3.89	22	3.39	24	.00
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	9.5*	4.00	14.5*	4.05	12*	-.05
15. Using Standard English appropriately	24*	3.90	21	4.10	9	-.20
16. Displaying enthusiasm	24*	4.09	10	3.85	26.5*	.24
17. Presenting information clearly	5.5*	4.04	11.5*	3.95	16.5*	.09
18. Using effective questioning techniques	29.5*	3.86	24	4.20	5.5*	-.34
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	20*	3.62	33.5*	4.30	3.5*	-.68
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	16.5*	3.82	26.5*	4.00	4	-.18
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	20*	4.29	4.5*	4.19	7.5*	.10
22. Building positively on students' ideas	34.5*	3.95	18*	3.85	26.5*	.10
23. Using praise	29.5*	4.19	7	4.33	2	-.14
D. Assessment						
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3	3.62	33.5*	3.67	31	-.05
25. Monitoring students' progress	34.5*	3.76	31	3.57	32	.19
26. Evaluating students' achievements	20*	3.95	18*	3.90	21*	.05
27. Evaluating own performance	11	3.81	29*	3.95	16.5*	-.14
E. Interpersonal Relationships						
28. Developing positive relationships with students	9.5*	4.29	4.5*	3.90	21*	.39
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	29.5*	4.41	2	3.95	16.5*	.46
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	13.5*	4.45	1	4.30	3.5*	.15
31. Motivating students to learn	2	4.14	8.5*	4.09	10	.05
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	20*	4.14	8.5*	3.86	24	.28
33. Communicating positively with parents	29.5*	3.29	37	2.81	37	.48
34. Working well with other teachers	29.5*	4.04	11.5*	3.24	34	.80
35. Working well with administrative staff	34.5*	3.81	29*	3.14	36	.67
36. Working well with school support staff	37	3.65	32	3.15	35	.50
F. Professional Awareness						
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	13.5*	4.38	3	3.81	27	.57

*Indicates tied ranks

Underlining indicates higher of mean ratings compared

18) differences were larger than .30. In all other instances, differences were quite small.

Teachers without previous teaching experience rated their performance higher than their preparation in relation to twenty items. In four cases, discrepancies between scores were .50 or higher: #34, working well with other teachers (difference = .80); #35, working well with administrative staff (difference = .67); #36, working well with school support staff (difference = .50); and #37, displaying concern for continuing professional development (difference = .57). Three other differences were larger than .40. These were observed in relation to items 8, 29 and 33. In most other instances differences were relatively small.

Teachers without previous teaching experience provided identical mean ratings for performance and preparation for one behaviour, #13, approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner. With regard to the behaviours ranked high in overall importance, teachers without previous experience rated their preparation slightly higher in three instances: #1, selecting appropriate subject content (difference = -.09); #3, using the knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities (difference = -.09); and #24, diagnosing students' learning needs (difference = -.05). In the remaining two behaviours, less experienced teachers rated their performance slightly higher: #17, presenting information clearly (difference = .09); and #31, motivating students to learn (difference = .05).

Discussion. The foregoing results suggest, once again, that in general teachers with experience in classrooms prior to training viewed their preparation more favourably than did those without such prior experience. Teachers with previous experience tended only to assess their performance more positively than their preparation in relation to behaviours associated with teachers' attitudes -- i.e. those aspects of behaviour which may be less amenable to training than those related more directly to areas of knowledge or skill. Although teachers who had had no experience prior to training provided fewer high ratings for their preparation, the impact of that preparation appeared to be reflected in the fact that, when ratings for performance were higher, those items most specifically associated with classroom teaching elicited differences between scores which were small. Like their more experienced colleagues, these teachers assigned higher ratings to their performance than to their preparation for those aspects of teaching which concerned their attitudes to students and colleagues.

An overall conclusion which may tentatively be drawn from these findings would seem to be that, in relation to behaviours which pertain directly to the teaching-learning interaction, teachers of both groups view their preparation most positively. However, it may further be concluded that, in general, teachers with classroom experience prior to training perceived their preparation experiences to have been of greater value to them.

III. TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS CONCERNING AREAS OF STRENGTH AND WEAKNESS IN PREPARATION PROGRAMS

An additional purpose of the present study was to discover the perceptions of teacher respondents concerning areas of strength and weakness in their preparation programs. Their purpose was articulated in the fifth research question which asked:

> What are the perceptions of first-year teachers concerning specific areas of strength or weakness in their teacher education programs?

The numerical ratings provided by teachers in questionnaires revealed the relative strengths and weaknesses of the programs in relation to those aspects of teaching defined by the thirty-seven teacher behaviours. More detailed indications of program strengths and weaknesses were provided by teachers in responses to open-ended questionnaire items and in interviews. Attention is given to these several perspectives in the section which follows.

Areas of Strength and Weakness

Findings. Numerical ratings provided by teachers in general were highest in relation to behaviours in the categories of lesson preparation, lesson presentation and those aspects of interpersonal relationships which referred to dealings with students (see Table 33). Ratings provided for behaviours in classroom management and assessment were next highest, while those ratings assigned to items which described teachers' dealings with parents and school personnel were lowest of all.

The specific items of behaviour for which highest ratings were provided were #4, *selecting appropriate teaching materials*; #5, *preparing appropriate teaching aids*; #18, *using effective questioning techniques*; #19, *using a variety of instructional techniques*; and #23, *using praise* . Lowest ratings were awarded to items 33, 34, 35 and 36 -- all items referring to teachers' relations to parents and to personnel within the school.

Discussion. The findings reported in numerical terms were confirmed by teachers' responses in interviews. Teachers felt, for example, that they had been particularly well trained in preparing lessons, for great emphasis had been placed on this during teaching practice. They stated that they had also received considerable guidance concerning the selection of teaching materials and aids in both content and methods courses. Generally, teachers interviewed also seemed to feel that they had been provided with a very adequate range of teaching methods, and that they had been helped to develop skills which enabled them to present material effectively in the classroom.

Less favourable comments tended to centre upon the teachers' perceptions of the program's failure to suggest adequate strategies for teaching children of lower academic ability. Several all-age school teachers also asserted that methodologies presented had not always taken into account the possibility of there being more than one grade level in a classroom at a time. Similarly, primary teachers in team-teaching schools asserted that those methods did not always apply effectively to their situations either. Both of these groups perceived as a weakness the failure of the programs to acquaint them with the existence of these types of teaching situations and to provide teachers with appropriate preparation for functioning in them.

This same criticism was voiced in relation to preparation provided in classroom management. However, the most frequently mentioned shortcoming of the program (by both teachers and their supervisors) was its failure to provide teachers with strong diagnostic skills.

Another area of weakness about which there was unanimity of opinion was that of human relations. Though teachers conceded that the programs had stressed the need to relate well with students, it had not, in their view, given any attention to other types of relationships teachers would have to build within the context of the school.

These various perspectives suggest several dimensions upon which in-service education might profitably focus: diagnosis and remediation in teaching; the concept of and implementation of team teaching; and human relations.

Many of the teachers' views of their preparation were reflected specifically in their opinions concerning the courses in their programs which they considered to be of greatest and least value to them in their teaching.

Most Valuable and Least Valuable Courses

Teachers of all types and levels of schools overwhelmingly identified their methods courses as the most valuable ones they had taken. There were, in all, twenty-nine mentions in interviews of general and specific methods courses among those which teachers claimed to value most. Teaching practice, which gave student teachers an opportunity to apply methods learned, was felt to have been the single most valuable experience in their program.

Nine teachers cited Educational Psychology as having proven to be of genuine assistance in their teaching, and Techniques and Management was mentioned by three teachers as having provided useful skills in classroom management. For their part, several junior secondary school teachers found the academic courses in their special subjects to have been of greatest value.

On the other hand, academic courses of one kind or another were also most often cited as being of least value. Most commonly mentioned were: various mathematics courses (three times); courses in Physical Geography (three times); courses in Humanities (three times). Only three Education courses were mentioned (once each) as not being useful to teaching. These were: Philosophy of Education, Testing and Evaluation, and The Curriculum (which was considered to be irrelevant to the realities of the Bahamian situation). There were, however, nine teachers of those interviewed who were of the opinion that none of the courses they had taken could be said to have been of little value.

Discussion. Generally, the majority of teachers perceived that most of the various segments of their programs had been useful to their preparation for teaching. The finding that their methods courses were considered most valuable confirms similar findings encountered in studies reviewed in Chapter 3. Further, it seems to underline the fact that beginning teachers value most strongly those aspects of their training which provide them with the skills to meet the immediate demands of their teaching situations.

There was, however, a suggestion by some teachers (of both primary and junior secondary level) that certain of their content courses were not sufficiently challenging because they seemed to offer largely a repetition of work already covered in high school. On the other hand, other teachers with, possibly, less strong academic backgrounds expressed satisfaction at being able to upgrade their knowledge in these subject areas. This dichotomy of opinion highlights a very fundamental organizational dilemma: the attempt to devise fairly uniform programs for students of diverse entry levels is likely to frustrate one group or the other of these. A preferable approach, (though probably more difficult to implement), would seem to be to tailor more flexible programs which might more satisfactorily cater to individual abilities.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Research Question 3:

> To what extent do first-year teachers perceive their preparation programs as having assisted them to develop attributes which appear to be necessary for competent teaching?

Teachers generally perceived College of The Bahamas teacher education programs as having provided adequate preparation in those aspects of teaching defined by the thirty-seven teacher behaviours included in this study. Nevertheless, certain weaknesses were also recognized.

Programs were seen to have been most effective in providing skills in the areas of lesson preparation and lesson presentation. Preparation was considered to be adequate in classroom management, and some dimensions of assessment. While teachers perceived that their programs had stressed the importance of relating well to students, they felt that their training was least effective in giving guidelines for establishing good relationships with parents and with adults in the school setting.

A comparison of teachers' ratings of their performance and preparation revealed higher ratings for their preparation in the a great many cases. However, the relatively small differences between scores in many instances suggested that teachers' perceptions of proficiency in their performance were likely closely to reflect their perceptions of the proficiency of their preparation. The aspect of teaching in which respondents assigned ratings for performance significantly higher than those assigned for their preparation was that which pertained to the relationships with colleagues and others in the school setting.

Research Question 4:

> To what extent are the perceptions of first-year teachers concerning their preparation related to (i) differences in grade level, (ii) personal variables, (iii) demographic variables, or (iv) experience in teaching prior to professional training?

The variable with which teachers' perceptions appeared to be most consistently related was the type and level of school in which they were working. Of the three major groups -- primary, junior secondary and all-age teachers -- primary school teachers provided highest ratings for their preparation. All-age school teachers provided next highest ratings overall, although there appeared to be certain specific areas in which they felt preparation could have been improved. These included guidance in the use of students' contributions in class, strategies for monitoring students' progress, and preparation for dealing with parents and colleagues.

Junior secondary school teachers provided significantly lower ratings than did the other two groups, and it seemed legitimate to conclude that the preparation afforded was likely to have been less adequate for the demands of teaching within those contexts than for primary or all-age schools.

This view seemed to be supported by the fact that, when ratings awarded by the three groups to their performance and preparation were compared, it was found that primary and all-age school teachers rated their preparation higher than their performance in most cases. Junior secondary teachers on the other hand, rated their performance higher in most instances.

When ratings were compared on the basis of the academic program teachers had followed at college, results demonstrated that associate degree teachers perceived their programs to have been stronger in dimensions relating to knowledge areas and relations with students. Non-associate degree teachers perceived their programs to have been most effective in areas pertaining to the methodological aspects of teaching.

A comparison of the ratings assigned to their performance and preparation by these two groups showed that associate degree teachers assigned higher ratings for their performance in the majority of cases. Non-associate degree teachers gave more positive ratings for their preparation.

When ratings were compared on the basis on teachers' experience in teaching prior to professional training, it was found that the teachers with experience in classrooms prior to entering college rated their preparation more favourably than did teachers without such previous experience. When their ratings for performance and preparation were compared, results showed that teachers with prior experience assigned higher ratings for their preparation than for their performance. The reverse was true in the case of teachers with no prior experience. However, the smallness of differences between ratings suggested that there were close associations between the perceptions of performance and the perceptions of preparation perceived.

Research Question 5:

> What are the perceptions of first-year teachers concerning specific areas of strength or weakness in their teacher education programs?

Teachers perceived the program to have been strongest in providing them with skills to prepare for and to present their lessons. They felt that they had been well prepared to select teaching materials and prepare aids, and had been given a wide variety of methodological techniques which they might employ in their teaching. They also appeared to have received adequate preparation to set up an appropriate learning environment and generally to manage their classrooms.

Teachers identified certain specific weaknesses that they perceived in their teacher education programs. These included: insufficient preparation in skills of diagnosis and remediation; too little guidance on how to teach students of low ability; too little attention to dimensions of human relations; too little preparation for the administrative aspects of teaching; and a lack of attention to the special needs of the team-teaching or multi-grade situations.

Courses considered to be most valuable were methods courses which provided principles which could be put into use during teaching practice and in actual teaching situations. Teaching practice was generally considered to be the single most important aspect of the training program. Courses in Educational Psychology were also considered valuable, as was the course which provided guidelines for classroom management. Junior secondary teachers in particular valued their academic courses in their specialist areas.

Academic courses were often considered the least useful as many of these were viewed as irrelevant to teaching. Moreover, several were considered unchallenging.

In Chapter 7, an analysis is made of organizational factors operating within teacher education programs which are perceived by respondents as contributing to the level of effectiveness achieved by those programs. These are issues addressed in the sixth and final research question in this study.

CHAPTER 7

PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHERS AND SUPERVISORS CONCERNING ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS IN TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

The preceding chapter presented the perceptions of first-year teachers concerning the adequacy of the preparation provided by the College of The Bahamas teacher education programs. Teachers' ratings of their preparation in respect of specific behaviours were discussed, and their perceptions regarding areas of strength and weakness within the programs were examined.

In the present chapter, an analysis is made of the perceptions of respondents relative to issues raised in the sixth research question posed in Chapter 1:

> Are there any organizational factors within the teacher education programs that teachers or supervisors perceive as having contributed to the level of effectiveness of those programs?

The findings reported are gleaned from the responses offered by teachers and supervisors to open-ended questions in their respective questionnaires, and in the course of interviews. As these responses were free and largely individual in nature, it was not considered either appropriate or meaningful to try to tabulate them in numerical form. Instead, an attempt is made in the account that follows to summarize accurately the substance of the views expressed, and to reflect the spirit in which they were advanced.

As a means of establishing a framework within which to consider the teachers' and supervisors' perceptions reported in the present chapter, reference is made to the four domains identified by Steers (1977:7) as incorporating factors which might contribute to organizational effectiveness. These were: (1) organizational characteristics; (2) environmental characteristics; (3) personnel characteristics; and (4) managerial policies and practices. The remainder of the chapter is, therefore, divided into four main sections, each of which focuses upon one of the areas of interest identified above.

I. ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

This first set of organizational variables embraces the structure and technology prevailing within the organization.

Structure

According to Steers' definition, structure referred to the way in which human resources were organized for goal-directed activities within an organization. Three of the particular structural variables which were cited as possibly influencing the level of organizational effectiveness provide an appropriate focus for the opinions expressed by respondents in the present study. These were: (1) decentralization; (2) functional specialization; and (3) formalization of work activities.

Decentralization. In the present instance, this concept is interpreted as relating to the degree to which members of the College of The Bahamas are able to participate in decisions pertinent to the policies and practices associated with the teacher education programs.

There were two major types of opinions expressed in relation to this factor. First, in responses to open-ended questions, a few teachers spontaneously suggested that, from their perspective, College of The Bahamas teacher education programs appeared to be too much dominated by the certification requirements laid down by an external body -- the University of The West Indies (see Appendix A). These teachers felt that programs could more effectively respond to the needs of the Bahamian situation if members of the college were freer to define their own requirements and make their own final assessments. This view was also expressed by several teachers in answer to an interview question on the subject.

Not all teachers shared this opinion, however. Two-thirds of the teachers interviewed felt that control of final program decisions by a body external to the college was advantageous, and ensured high standards. They stated that they felt a particular sense of satisfaction that they had achieved an "international" standard, and that their qualifications would be recognized beyond the confines of The Bahamas. Some even expressed the view that this external "quality control" prevented the possibility of bias which might become an issue if specification of certification requirements and assessment were carried out on a purely internal basis.

One teacher introduced an additional, significant dimension to the question of decentralization. She noted that student teachers, themselves, should be allowed to have more say in what was included in their preparation programs. Since many teacher education students entered college fresh from work in the school system, they could provide a more accurate, up-to-date view of what actually went on in schools than faculty who were likely to have been out of the situation for some time. The potential value of this kind of contribution to program decisions appeared to be confirmed by the frequency with which teachers and supervisors commented that the view of the schools presented in teacher education programs tended to be an idealized one.

In sum, there appears to be something of a division of opinion concerning this aspect of the organization of the programs.. On the one hand, a number of respondents feel that there needs to be greater devolution of responsibility with respect to the design, implementation and assessment of the program. On the other, thre is an equally strong feeling that the continuance of a more centralized "external" control is desirable.

Specialization. The conviction that functional specialization represents the most efficient and effective use of human resources clearly lies behind the design of the teacher education programs under consideration, for the specific components of those programs are offered by relevant subject specialists in the various teaching divisions (see Figure 5, p. 52).

Generally, this practice was perceived by teachers as being an acceptable one, for it enabled student teachers to be exposed to a broad specturm of subject content by individuals who were knowledgeable in their respective fields.

The many positive comments advanced in response to open-ended questions affirmed the value which teachers perceived in the courses they had taken in various subject areas. The major criticisms made of this practice related to the lack of relevance to the specific needs of teachers that was observed in the nature of certain aspects of the subject matter covered.

Three comments made in response to open-ended questions indicated that those respondents perceived a need for even greater degrees of specialization. One such comment suggested that lecturers in the Education Division should be responsible only for the teaching of methods and for the supervision of teacher practice, and that the college should ensure a sufficient supply of specialist staff to cover other associated aspects of the programs such as the philosophy, sociology, and psychology of education.

Both teachers and supervisors identified a need for more highly specialized personnel in the area of teaching practice supervision. Several principals expressed the view that certain of the faculty who were called upon to supervise student teachers did not possess either the experience or the expertise necessary to provide constructive guidance and criticism. This fact detracted from the value of the teaching practice as a learning experience.

In contrast to this concern for greater specialization of functions, one teacher expressed a preference for the kind of program which had been offered previously at the former teachers' colleges -- an integrated one, the total responsibility for which had rested with the same group of faculty throughout. This seemed to be a minority view, however, and the large majority of teachers confirmed that they had experienced few difficulties in making the transition from the academic to the professional stages of the program.

Formalization. This concept, as defined by Steers (1977:65) referred to the extent to which work activities were specified or regulated by official rules and procedures. In reference to the College of The Bahamas teacher education programs, a number of teachers indicated in responses to open-ended questions that there seemed to be a lack of specificity concerning the responsibilities of individual members of faculty. Four teachers suggested, for example, that the programs should have set syllabuses for all lecturers to follow, with the aims and content of each course clearly specified, so that students in different sections of the same course might be sure of receiving similar instruction in similar material. Moreover, in the matter of student guidance, it was stressed that there should be more time officially set aside for faculty members to meet with their students to discuss progress or problems.

Discussion. In this first area examined, organizational structure, teachers' and supervisors' comments revealed a number of factors which, in their view, appeared to bear upon the effectiveness of the teacher education programs as a whole. The current structure of the program, designed according to the principle of functional specialization, appeared to be considered by most respondents to be satisfactory. However, certain comments indicated that the special needs of teachers were not always taken into account. This suggested the lack of coordination between divisions which Clark and Marker (1975:59) had identified as being characteristic of teacher education programs which were operating within multi-purpose institutions (see Chapter 3, page 67). A number of the studies reviewed by Barr and Singer (1953) had also revealed this lack of interaction (Chapter 3, page 82).

Teachers' views were divided concerning the desirability of greater decentralization of authority in regard to certification requirements. The concerns of those who favoured retention of the control of the external body centred upon the credibility of credentials and the assurance of impartiality in assessment. The views reflect an element of distrust of the institution's ability to regulate its own operations which, if founded on concrete experience, suggests that there is a need for very scrupulous scrutiny of prevailing practices. On the other hand, a number of teachers advocated greater reliance upon the judgment of faculty who knew students and their abilities well. In any event, this aspect of the program would seem to be one to which careful consideration might be given.

Concerning the formalization of work activities, the comments of teachers seemed to point to the existence of inconsistencies in the way some members of faculty interpreted their instructional responsibilities. The need for more clearcut guidelines in this regard would seem to be indicated.

Technology

This second organizational characteristic is used to refer to the processes employed to achieve program objectives, and embraces all dimensions of the content, sequencing and methods of implementation of the instructional experiences by means of which prospective teachers are prepared for their professional roles. Various aspects of the technology employed in College of The Bahamas teacher education program were identified by teachers and supervisors as influencing the overall effectiveness of those programs.

Lack of specificity concerning requirements. The most frequent complaint laid against the College of The Bahamas teacher education programs concerned the frequency with which course requirements were changed. There were fourteen spontaneous mentions of this factor as having caused resentment and frustration among students, for many individuals had done courses which they later discovered could not be counted towards their program.

Teachers occasionally found themselves equally frustrated by too strict an adherence to program guidelines when individual circumstances seemed to call for a measure of flexibility. The experience of one primary school teacher illustrates this point:

> One semester I did Part II of a subject because Part I was filled. I got a C[1] in that subject, but two semesters later I had to do Part I of the same subject.

In the same vein, a junior secondary teacher interviewed suggested that, particularly in the case of academic courses, there should be some system whereby students whose background in a given subject area might be more extensive than the average might have the opportunity of "examining out" of certain courses so as to be freed to do others of greater value to them. This option did not appear to be available at present. As a consequence, some teachers saw the program as being unchallenging in certain areas.

Timing, sequencing and duration of training experiences. Many opinions were expressed by both teachers and supervisors concerning these dimensions of the programs. Four teachers, in their responses to open-ended questions, contended that the present programs were too long. One of these, a junior secondary teacher, supported this view by a claim that only the last year of the program (the professional year) was legitimate, since only the courses done in that year were relevant to teaching. Several other teachers suggested that the balance of time allotted to academic and professional courses should be adjusted. They advocated that the time spent on "content" courses should be curtailed and the time devoted to methods courses and to teaching practice should be extended.

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[1] In the College of The Bahamas grading system, a C is a passing grade and qualifies a student to proceed to the next level within a subject sequence.

The timing of the teaching practice was also seen as being inappropriate. In response to interview questions concerning this point, the majority of teachers and supervisors maintained that the exercise came too late in the program to be of maximum value. Without exception, teachers felt that they should have had an opportunity earlier in their programs to have contact with real school situations.

These responses confirmed similar views advanced in questionnaire responses. Like supervisors, teachers were concerned that, coming as it did at the end of the program, the practice teaching experience did not afford teachers the chance to reflect on their weaknesses and to improve on them. Furthermore, a few teachers expressed the view that, as this one teaching practice was also the one during which their final evaluation was to be made, a displacement of goals occurred: instead of being a genuine learning experience, the teaching practice took on the dimensions of a test. One primary school teacher declared:

> The teaching practice was the most hectic period of my life. Teaching practice was not to determine how well you could

> teach, but rather how well you would write schemes, lesson plans and organize classroom and display areas. More emphasis should be placed on teachers' and childrens' performance.

A junior secondary teacher stated: "My teaching practice was not really a practice, it was a test instead."

Most other teachers, although often acknowledging the stresses caused by the nature of the experience, still valued it above all other dimensions of the program. There were many comments to this effect. Typical of these was the following:

> The teaching practice was very helpful to me. I was able to work very well. Whatever I learned during my teacher education programme I was able to apply in the classroom. Of course the work was hard, but I enjoyed it.

Another teacher wrote:

> The teaching practice was proved very rewarding for me. This was my first time teaching a group of pupils. Many of the methods taught in class equipped me to handle this situation very effectively . . .

A variety of opinions was offered concerning the optimum length for teaching practice. Teachers who were interviewed were split in their views: thirteen felt that the eight weeks they had done in the classroom (two weeks of observation and six of actual teaching) had been long enough; the other ten were of the opinion that the practice should have been longer.

In questionnaire responses, six teachers maintained that the time allotted was too short to enable them to develop their skills as they would have liked, and that it was also too highly pressured. Two of these felt that the experience should last for a full school year. One of these stated:

> My personal feeling towards teaching practice is one which I hate to remember. I worked myself nearly sick and my anxiety nearly drove me crazy. I wouldn't like to go through that experience again for all the money in the world. I would prefer to work at a normal pace in a classroom for a year and be observed every once in a while by the head, the class teacher and whoever, but all those schemes and charts and other preparations of notes drove me wild or crazy.

The possibility of a full year's internship for trainee teachers was recognized by some supervisors, also, as one possible solution to their own ambivalent position regarding the duration of teaching practice. On the one hand, they did not feel confident that the time presently allotted was adequate to enable teachers to develop fully the kinds of skills they required. On the other hand, however, from their standpoint in the schools, supervisors considered that the period of eight weeks currently employed was too long, for the regular functioning of the schools was inevitably disrupted to some degree by the presence of student teachers. They saw the year's internship as offering a number of advantages: the student teacher could become a fully-functioning member of the school staff and participate in all aspects of school life. At the same time, in the supervisors' views, the candidate for teaching would benefit from the supervision and guidance provided by college personnel. One supervisor saw this as being particularly valuable since it would encourage beginning teachers to practise more scrupulously, and over a longer period, the strategies and methods taught them in college. In this way these approaches might become more firmly engrained as part of the teacher's teaching "habits."

The other possible alternative suggested by supervisors was that a series of several shorter practices should be established, to occur at intervals throughout the teacher education program. This system would provide an opportunity for teachers to gain exposure to a variety of school settings in the course of their training. Family Island school principals, particularly, saw this as an advantage, as did supervisors in team-teaching schools, since neither of those types of schools currently received student teachers on teaching practice. Supervisors maintained that student teachers would, in that way, gain a more realistic picture of the educational system into which they would be moving after graduation.

Discussion. The need which teachers perceived for a greater measure of stability in relation to specific course requirements is of importance. Respondents perceived the frequent changes they had experienced as indicating an overall lack of organizational purpose. This would seem to reflect the weakness so frequently identified as afflicting teacher education in general: the lack of a strong conceptual base from which the operations to be undertaken might logically emerge. In the absence of a clear, conceptual definition of purpose, programs were reduced to a collection of specific courses, whose existence was justified by external requirements, and from which deviation was not encouraged. This phenomenon was also noted in other contexts (see Chapter 3: Conant, 1963; Koerner, 1965; Silberman, 1971; Thompson, 1972; Ellis, 1978). As a result, programs were perceived by a few teachers as being unnecessarily inflexible. The particular circumstances of individual students were not taken into account. These complaints recall the lack of flexibility which Conant (1963) had noted in the American teacher education programs, and reflect the concern that Fuller and Brown (1975) had also expressed (Chapter 3).

Both the frequent changes and the lack of flexibility prevailing in teacher education programs were perceived as being demoralizing and frustrating to student teachers, since they involved what appeared to be a waste of valuable time. As it is important that prospective teachers should gain a positive sense of satisfaction from their learning experiences if they are to inspire in their own students a sense of the joy of learning, these significant unintended outcomes of the teacher education programs are worthy of serious consideration.

The findings concerning teachers' and supervisors' views of the timing, sequencing and duration of the various components of the teacher education programs were similar to many encountered in studies reviewed in Chapter 3 (see, for example: Isle, 1942; Zulauf, 1956; Hutcheon, 1972; Mokosch, Dravland and Mokosch-Atherstone, 1979; Lynch and Kuehl, 1979-80). The strong tendency of teachers to advise that the professional portion of the program be extended and the academic components curtailed seemed to spring from a conviction that much of the work done in the academic areas, while valuable to them personally, was not always relevant to the job of teaching. A particularly puzzling comment -- or possibly, a revealing one -- was that made by the junior secondary teacher who contended that only the last year of her program was legitimate. In the junior secondary training program, the first two years are devoted to the provision of specialist preparation in students' major areas. This teacher's opinion would seem to suggest that the areas of special study undertaken in those first two years of college had little relevance to what was actually taught in the schools. If this were indeed the case, there would clearly be an urgent need for dialogue between course designers and school personnel concerning appropriate subject background for prospective teachers.

There seem to be two additional possible explanations for teachers' interpreting much of their training as irrelevant. First, beginning teachers are, clearly, most concerned with coping with the immediate challenges encountered in the classroom, and those "survival skills" which they have acquired from their training are those which are most valued. In addition, however, one may infer from teachers' comments that comparatively little discussion had taken place between faculty and students concerning the overall importance and purpose of the less immediately applicable dimensions of the teacher education programs. In the absence of this kind of guidance, it would appear unlikely that new teachers would themselves make the necessary conceptual connections.

II. ENVIRONMENTAL CHARACTERISTICS

Two levels of environmental characteristics were identified by Steers (1977:84) as being important to the effectiveness of an organization: the external environment -- i.e., the forces outside the organization itself -- and the internal environment or "organizational climate." Respondents in this study commented on both of these dimensions in reference to the College of The Bahamas teacher education programs.

External Environment

The perceptions of teachers and supervisors, as reflected in their comments in questionnaires and in interviews focused primarily upon two significant dimensions of the setting in which teacher preparation programs functioned: (1) the accuracy with which the needs of that environment had been identified and interpreted into objectives for teacher education, and (2) the nature of the relationships existing between the teacher education institution and other partners in the teacher preparation enterprise.

Interpretation of the environment. Many teachers cited as a weakness the failure of the teacher education programs to provide them with a sufficiently realistic view of what schools were really like. This was particularly the case among teachers in rural settings, or in open-area, team-teaching schools in the capital. The view was shared by several supervisors as well.

All of the eleven teachers who stated in interviews that they had been inadequately prepared for their jobs gave as the reason for their position the fact that they had not been informed of or exposed to (a) the different kinds of teaching situations in which they subsequently found themselves, and (b) the real levels of ability and achievement they were likely to encounter among children they would have to teach. Similarly, in questionnaire responses, teachers frequently expressed this view. Typical of some of these comments is the following one made by a Family Island teacher:

> The lecturers should visit these schools such as all-age schools, private schools and the government schools in Nassau. This would give them some ideas of the situation of some of these schools and what teachers have to put up with . . . . If lecturers come face to face with the problems, then and only then will they be able to tell students how to deal with those problems, e.g. you may talk about grouping, but what do you do when you have about three grades and about three different levels in each grade?

Concerning the relevance of certain of the strategies suggested in methods courses, a New Providence primary school teacher maintained:

> There is a need for some liaison between the schools and the college. In college you live in a dream world of well-equipped schools and thus when coming out into the schools you realize the only aid you have is your talent.

And another pointed out:

> I also learned that much of what was taught in theory was not realistic in many cases, mainly what was important was that I learned that various techniques from textbooks could only be used in ideal situations.

Even in reference to the kind of situation that might be encountered on teaching practice, a few teachers felt they could have been more realistically prepared. One primary school teacher stated:

> I was rather disappointed when I was on teaching practice. I had always thought as I mentioned before that everyone knew how to read simple books, write, spell and know the tables. But this was completely the opposite. I just couldn't believe this was happening . . . .

Another advised:

> Tell students about the hassle of the headteacher saying "Do it this way." The class teacher who thinks she knows everything and the college supervisor who will show you it another way too. . . .

Principals confirmed the need for teacher education programs to acknowledge more fully the realities of school life. One principal of a Family Island all-age school emphasized:

> I am of the opinion that teachers coming from COB[2] should be acquainted with what I consider to be "survival skills," especially for teachers serving on some of the Family Islands. In these islands they come into contact with larger classes, inadequate equipment, teaching aids and access to library facilities etc. In Nassau, teachers have access to most of these facilities.

Discussion. From the views presented, it seems fairly clear that there is a definite need for greater contact between the college and the schools in order to focus more accurately the preparation offered in teacher education programs, and to reduce, in this way, what Gaede (1978) called the "reality shock" experienced by beginning teachers.

Interorganizational relationships. Principals interviewed provided information concerning the level of interorganizational exchange existing between the schools and the college. They stated that the major opportunity for contact between these two bodies arose in relation to the teaching practice exercise. Seven of the nine principals who, in interviews, indicated that they received student teachers in their schools, claimed that they had no input into the planning of the teaching practice, other than their communication of their willingness to accept students for the period requested. Such additional communication as did exist usually occurred on an informal basis, as a result of interaction with college supervisors.

There appeared to be more opportunity for principals or cooperating teachers to provide feedback about the teaching practice experience, but, again, primarily on an informal basis. Furthermore, three principals maintained that they had never been approached to provide their views about the teaching practices held in their schools. In all instances, principals indicated that they would like to have the opportunity to provide information to the college and to receive more extensive information themselves. They felt, therefore, that more formalized channels of communication should be established.

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[2] The College of The Bahamas is frequently referred to locally as "COB".

Discussion. The exchange between the college and the schools appears largely to be unilateral, with the schools providing needed resources -- pupils, classrooms, cooperating teachers and real world experience for student teachers -- and receiving comparatively little in return. The principles established in the literature on inter-organizational relationships would suggest that such a one-sided situation is unlikely to produce an optimal level of effectiveness. There would, therefore, seem to be a need for a more balanced relationship between the college and the schools in this respect, with respective responsibilities and contributions being specifically defined.

Teachers, for their part, were of the view that such interaction should be ongoing if teacher education programs were to be kept relevant to the real needs of teachers. A junior secondary teacher summed it up in this fashion:

> I believe that with better organization and more involvement with schools, not only during teaching practice, the Teacher Education programme would have a greater effect.

The willingness expressed by school personnel to cooperate with the college in the teacher preparation enterprise is encouraging and holds the potential for contributing significantly to the further development of training experiences.

Organizational climate. Teacher's perceptions were not explicitly solicited concerning those organizational characteristics usually associated with "organizational climate" (i.e., esprit, disengagement, aloofness, production emphasis, etc.), nor did respondents volunteer such information. However, a number of the comments made by teachers in their oral or written responses to open-ended questions focused upon a dimension which Steers (1977:102) identified as being associated with organizational climate: "task structure", or the degree to which methods used to accomplish objectives were clearly spelled out. As was mentioned earlier in this chapter, teachers expressed their frustration at having the nature of their programs altered so frequently. They perceived this to be a demoralizing factor in their preparation experience, whose benefits they otherwise fully recognized.

One primary school teacher described her feelings in this way:

> I do hope that after five years of existence things are running more smoothly. I entered during the transition period. I came in for a two-year course and spent four years. Each semester there were courses added and dropped. I think that after four years it is a disgrace to have graduated with only a certificate.

A junior secondary teacher commented:

> The teacher education programs should be structured into parts so that they won't be so frustrating. I would like for student teachers to be told and given a guide to say which step should be taken each semester. The education courses should have a major structure whereby one could put the ends together. They should not be allowed to wander about without a plan.

Although other teachers were not so specific in expressing their dissatisfaction, five primary and two junior secondary teachers agreed that there was room for improvement in this respect. Further, of the twenty-three teachers interviewed, twenty maintained that the exact nature of requirements had not been specified for them until they were well into their programs.

This apparent lack of clarity concerning what was required of students was perceived as being indicative of a more general lack of organizational competence. One teacher advised:

> Members of the College Board need to sit, observe the entire system at COB and make rapid changes. COB should be a place where organization should be demonstrated in all areas and not a chaotic state.

Most teachers were more tolerant in their overall judgments, recognizing both strengths and weaknesses. Typical of these positions is the following:

> The teacher education program is adequate, but it is open to much improvement. Seeing that the teacher education program and COB are still in their infancy, we must contribute to the betterment of the institution.

The effect of the lack of organization upon the morale of teachers was exacerbated by the particular stresses resulting from specific aspects of the program. Notably this situation was described in relation to teaching practice. Many teachers identified this as the most harassing part of their preparation. Although nearly all respondents acknowledged the benefits mentioned earlier, they also described the emotional strain which accompanied the experience. One teacher called it "a frightening and nerve-wracking experience." Another contended: "As a whole the teaching practice was enjoyable, although at times the pressure was too great." A third stated: "The teaching practice phase was the most frightening yet the most valuable learning experience I've had during my ties with the College of The Bahamas."

Much of the strain appeared to result from the consciousness of the external evaluation that awaited at the end of the exercise. However, one teacher identified another significant cause, which related to the lack of clearly specified interorganizational responsibilities alluded to earlier. She maintained:

> I did not gain much experience from my teaching practice. Some days I felt like giving up and finding something else to do. Because, if I were going wrong, I had no classroom teacher to correct my mistakes. . . .

This lack of guidance from the cooperating teacher was not, however, a fault which was very frequently mentioned by respondents, the majority of whom, on the contrary, praised these individuals highly. Nevertheless, there were a few instances where a lack of concern was noted. One junior secondary teacher was particularly outspoken:

> It appears that the class teachers take advantage of the student teachers. Many see this aspect of the practice as a mini-vacation and do more to hinder the progress of the student teacher than to assist him. This is especially unfair on behalf of the student if he is having difficulty concerning the practice.

Other teachers indicated that their cooperating teacher did not seem to like them, or provided only destructive criticism. One even described some cooperating teachers as "hostile." In an already stressful situation, teachers claimed, such negative relationships further lowered their morale.

Discussion. The two aspects of environmental characteristics considered in the foregoing section appear to be closely linked. The demands of the external environment determine the purposes of the work to be undertaken in the organization, and the perception of organizational decision makers as to the significant dimensions of that environment is critical to the determination of the specific nature of the activities designed to achieve those purposes.

From the comments of the respondents in the present study, it would seem that the interpretation of the needs of the schools which is reflected in the preparation provided does not always conform with the reality that school practitioners perceive. The variety and complexity of the educational environment does not appear to be fully taken into account. One reason for this weakness appears to be the lack of specific, ongoing communication between the training institution and the schools.

Moreover, the lack of an appropriate conceptualization of the nature of the tasks for which teachers must be prepared seems to result in a lack of clear direction concerning the kinds of preparation experiences which should be provided for prospective teachers. Student teachers appear frequently to be confused and frustrated by this fact. This occurrence is not, however, unique to the present situation. It is reflected in the findings of several studies reviewed in Chapter 3 of this dissertation. Benson's (1977) respondents, for example, also identified a need for greater relevance in program offerings to field conditions. Pigge (1978) discovered that teacher education institutions appeared not to emphasize sufficiently competencies which teachers perceived to be of greatest importance, and advised closer consultation between teacher educators and practitioners in the field. The findings of Elliott and Steinkellner (1979), Starkman et al. (1979), Ratsoy et al. (1979) and numerous others also supported this contention.

An important dimension of the contact between the teacher education institution and the schools is the degree to which the relationships forged are formalized. With specific regard to the interorganizational cooperation reflected in the teaching practice, the negative views sometimes expressed by respondents in this study highlighted the need for careful specification of the roles and responsibilities of the respective partners in the enterprise. These findings seem similar to those reported by Caldwell (1979) in respect of The University of Alberta practicum, and confirm conditions reported by Clark and Marker (1975), Silberman (1971) and others (Chapter 3).

The preceding factors would seem to have influenced very substantially the morale of student teachers, their perceptions of the climate prevailing within their programs and their general satisfaction with their teacher education experience. Such outcomes can be considered significant dimensions of program effectiveness.

III. EMPLOYEE CHARACTERISTICS

The views expressed by teachers and supervisors concerning the quality of faculty performance in the teacher education programs touched upon two of the perspectives defined by Steers (1977:114) as being necessary to ensure organizational success: the appropriate qualifications of personnel, and the dependability of role performance.

Qualifications

Generally, teachers' comments indicated that they viewed very positively the capabilities of the faculty associated with the teacher education programs. Lecturers were, for the most part, considered to be knowledgeable in their subject fields, and able to provide instruction of high quality. In assessing the program in general, one primary school teacher stated: "The lecturers were experienced teachers and did their part well. I enjoyed every day of their teaching."

However, there are some indications that teachers felt that more care should be taken to ensure that those involved in the preparation of teachers should themselves possess fairly extensive classroom experience. One teacher advised: "Employ teachers who have good experience in teaching and not those who have degrees and no experience." Further in order that faculty involved in teacher preparation should have accurate knowledge of conditions prevailing in the schools, another teacher suggested that, every few years, teachers should be brought in from the schools to join the college faculty.

Principals tended to be particularly concerned that those persons involved in the supervision of student teachers on teaching practice should possess appropriate skills -- i.e., that they should be well-versed in the subject areas they were supervising, know what they were looking for in student teachers' performance and be able to impart this to their students.

Both teachers and principals (especially in the Family Islands) observed that the college should secure the services of specialists in remedial methods, since there was so widespread a need in Bahamian public schools for teachers who had training in remedial teaching.

Overall, however, the quality of the faculty emerged as a significant strength in the program.

Role Performance

In response to an interview question pertaining to the quality of instruction they had received in the teacher education program, the majority of teachers rated faculty performance as good or very good. There were twenty favourable responses received as opposed to three unfavourable ones. When instructional quality was criticized, the cause was nearly always the same: there had been too much lecturing and not enough real teaching. The type of instruction which was most highly valued was that where instructors geared their teaching to suit the needs of the particular students they had in their classes, and created the kind of teaching/learning environment which, student teachers had felt, they themselves would like to achieve in their own classes.

With regard to faculty members' willingness to offer advice and guidance to students, teachers overwhelmingly agreed that there were few problems in this area. Of the twenty-three teachers interviewed, only two claimed that they had not always received the help asked for.

There were, nevertheless, a few instances in questionnaire and interview responses where teachers claimed that they had not received adequate help from their college supervisors on teaching practice. One teacher indicated that she had been frustrated because she had received little constructive feedback from her supervisor. Another implied that her supervisor had had little sympathy for her difficulties, and a third found her supervisor to have been lacking in the skills needed to provide appropriate guidance.

These kinds of complaints were not numerous however, and, in the main, the contribution of faculty members to the program was seen to be a valuable one.

Discussion. This generally positive view of faculty members' capabilities and attitudes is very encouraging and contrasts quite strongly with that encountered in some other studies. In Brehaut and Gill's (1977) study of Ontario teacher education programs, for example, respondents tended to be very critical of the quality of instruction provided (Chapter 3, page 105). In both studies, however, there is a concern expressed that teacher education faculty should be current and knowledgeable about conditions in schools. A similar concern was also identified in the study of University of Alberta beginning teachers (Ratsoy et al., 1979).

The criticisms expressed concerning the predominance of lecturing as the major means of instruction are, again, not unique to this study. The complaint echoes one articulated in a variety of contexts -- by Conant (1963), Ryan (1970), and other critics in the United States, and by Marr (1973) in her study of teacher education in the Punjab. It is difficult to comprehend why among those who advocate to their students the importance of variety in instruction this adherence to a single method should persist.

Principals' concern for more skilled supervision in teaching practice is consistent with that expressed in both theoretical discussions and empirical studies reviewed in Chapter 3 (Sarason et al., 1962; Clark and Marker, 1975; and Marr, 1973, for example), and deserves serious consideration.

The satisfactory relationships existing between faculty and students emerged, as in other studies, as a significant area of strength. These were, no doubt, facilitated in the Bahamian context by the small size of the institution and the closer contact between faculty and students that occurred as a result.

IV. POLICIES AND PRACTICES

The other organizational factors identified by respondents in this study as having contributed to the effectiveness of the College of The Bahamas teacher education programs focus upon two of the areas of managerial concern which Steers (1977:136) saw as possibly contributing to organizational effectiveness: resource allocation and communication.

Resources

The comments made by teachers with reference to the provision of resources for the work of the teacher education programs were almost consistently negative in nature. These comments concerned, particularly, the physical facilities and library resources available to prospective teachers.

Physical facilities. Two teachers suggested that certain rooms should be set aside for the use of teacher education classes alone, so that demonstration lessons could be given, and appropriate classroom displays set up and left in place for students to observe. These rooms could, also, serve as centres where visual aids might be prepared.

More extensive study areas were seen by all teachers as being urgently needed. Teachers were unanimous in their view that facilities available to them had been largely inadequate. Examples of responses given in questionnaires present eloquent testimony to this fact. One teacher wrote:

> The library was the only study facility available during my time at the college. I found it too small and too noisy for studying. People tend to use it for social relaxation rather than earnest studying. If the library could be expanded and maybe a sergeant-at-arms be employed it would be sufficient.

Another maintained: "During my time at the college, there was hardly anywhere to study except the nearest tree or empty classroom." A junior secondary teacher described her own ingenious solution to the problem. She termed the study facilities "definitely inadequate" but added, "Luckily Kentucky Fried Chicken was nearby, where, for the price of a cup of tea, one could sit, sip and study."

Library resources. Respondents viewed not only the space available for study purposes to have been inadequate, but the actual material resources to have been limited too. The majority of teachers expressed the view that, although there were some useful source materials in the library, in general, resources were insufficient to meet the demands of the program. Four respondents drew attention to the fact that books were outdated. One commented on the paucity of books related to The Bahamas. Several others noted that books supposedly on reserve frequently could not be found. Still others mentioned that, in general, security in the library needed to be tightened as many books were taken out without the librarians' knowledge.

These shortcomings were seen to have had a direct influence on students' performance in various courses. A primary teacher stated:

> This is a major problem in most cases. Projects are often given where there are few or no resources available for reference. When this happens, students are unable to complete their assignments in the specified time.

A junior secondary teacher confirmed this and advocated:

> Librarians should give special attention to students' needs. They should be aware of all courses and projects offered by the college in all subject areas. Teaching practice students should be given special consideration because many of them do not have the money to purchase things needed.

In sum, the insufficiency of both library resources and appropriate study facilities appears to be a significant area of weakness within the program. There were, however, certain comments made in this connection which pointed to another problem area -- the lack of adequate communication within the college. One teacher stated that, although insufficient, there were good and useful resources in the library, but that these were "not well advertised." Another affirmed that library resources were quite adequate, but that students did not realize how extensive they were, nor how to go about taking advantage of them. This weakness in communication, respondents felt, pervaded other areas of the program as well.

Communication

The most revealing comments concerning the breakdowns in communication which occurred within the college were elicited by a question concerning counselling arrangements. Comments were made from two perspectives: academic advising and personal guidance.

With respect to arrangements made to advise students about their individual program needs, two teachers expressed their satisfaction with the procedure while numerous others commented strongly on the inadequacies of the guidance offered. In their view, advisors frequently seemed to know as little about requirements as the students themselves. One teacher said of the procedure: "A total disaster. Most of the time neither the counsellor nor I knew what to do." Another teacher maintained that "as far as counselling is concerned, this had very little value, because many times students were counselled and the courses were not available." Yet another summed up the situation: "A total waste of time. Every advisor had a different sheet of paper."[3]

Nevertheless, the picture was not totally negative. There were some comments in which teachers expressed the view that advisors genuinely tried hard to help students. With regard to personal guidance, however, many teachers seemed not to be aware of what services were available. One teacher commented: "If counselling arrangements were made, there was very little effort to have them publicized." Another claimed: "The few times I went to be counselled there was no one in the office." Still another felt that counsellors needed to reach out to a broader cross-section of students.

Discussion. The perceptions of respondents examined in the preceding section touch upon two very sensitive areas in teacher education programs: the insufficiency of facilities and resources, and the lack of adequate communication processes in the institution.

The paucity of material resources is not unexpected in the context. Turner (1978) had identified this as a characteristic of teacher education institutions in the developing world. Marr (1973) and Haque (1977) had confirmed this in their evaluation studies of teacher education in India and Bangladesh (Chapter 3).

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[3] The "sheet of paper" described here refers to the program sheet on which course requirements are outlined.

That there was often a lack of sufficient communication between the training institution and the schools was also identified in many previous studies. However, the allusion to serious gaps in the internal communication of the institution was not one encountered to any great degree in literature reviewed for this study. The weakness identified in relation to the College of The Bahamas programs requires attention, since the accurate communication of information is essential both to the productivity of the organization and to the morale of the members within it.

As the provision of adequate resources and the establishment of an effective communication system are specific areas of managerial responsibility, their improvement is a matter of particular concern to administrators within a teacher education institution. These factors, like all those discussed throughout this chapter, contribute significantly to prospective teachers' perceptions of the effective functioning of their programs. Since student teachers will, themselves, be performing their professional responsibilities within the context of an educational institution, their preparation experiences should exemplify for them appropriate organizational behaviour. As Rogus and Schuttenberg (1979:39) maintained: "Students must experience being in a healthy organization to learn appropriate organizational coping."

This aspect of teachers' preparation would appear to have received less than optimal attention in present programs.

SUMMARY

This chapter examined a variety of organizational factors within College of The Bahamas teacher education programs which appeared to contribute in some way to the perceived level of effectiveness of those programs. The four domains identified by Steers (1977) as being pertinent to organizational effectiveness were used as a framework within which to present respondents' views. These domains were: (1) organizational characteristics, (2) environmental characteristics, (3) employee characteristics, and (4) managerial policies and practices.

Summary of Findings

1. Organizational characteristics. The present structure prevailing within preparation programs, arranged according to the principle of functional specialization, was perceived as being effective. However, there was a division of opinion among teachers concerning the desirability of affording to college faculty a greater degree of autonomy concerning the specification of certification requirements and the final assessment of teachers. While one group of teachers felt that greater decentralization of program control would contribute to greater responsiveness to local situations, others felt that the involvement of an external body ensured high standards and freedom from bias.

Several factors in the content, sequencing and implementation of training experiences, emerged as influencing the overall effectiveness of programs. Teachers complained, on the one hand, of the lack of clear guidelines concerning requirements, and, on the other, the lack of flexibility which prevented the accommodation of the individual needs of students. There was considerable feeling that the present programs were too long, and also that the balance between academic and professional components should be adjusted. The timing, duration and nature of the teaching practice arrangements were regarded as requiring revision.

2. Environmental characteristics. A number of teachers indicated that teacher education programs had failed to provide them with a realistic view of what schools were like. Even teaching practice had not fully prepared them for conditions they had encountered in school situations. Respondents perceived a need for closer, ongoing links between the college and the schools, particularly since existing linkages appeared to be largely of an informal nature.

Teachers' perceptions of the climate existing within the institution indicated that they had often been frustrated by the prevailing lack of organization, and the lack of clarity concerning requirements of their programs. Teaching practice, which was viewed as the most useful part of the program, was also seen to be the most harassing.

3. Employee characteristics. Teachers identified the quality of the faculty as a positive strength in the program. However, some respondents suggested that all faculty employed to prepare teachers should themselves have extensive classroom experience. Teachers' willingness to help students was consistently praised.

4. Managerial policies and practicies. The inadequacy of appropriate facilities and resources for the demands of the program was

seen to be the weakest aspect of the College of The Bahamas program. There was unanimity concerning the need for more study facilities, library resources and classroom space which would be earmarked for the use of teacher education students.

The ineffectiveness of the internal communication system within the college was perceived to have contributed to students' sense of frustration with the program.

Overall, respondents' comments indicated that, while there were many positive aspects of the preparation programs, there were also a variety of organizational factors which should be addressed if programs were to be further improved.

CHAPTER 8

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter is divided into three sections: (1) summary of the study; (2) conclusions, and (3) implications.

SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

Purpose of the Study

The central purpose of the study was to discover the degree to which the teacher education programs offered in The Bahamas were perceived by significant groups of individuals as being effective in providing teachers with the attributes necessary for the successful performance of their teaching roles. A further purpose was to discover areas of strength and possible weaknesses in the programs.

The Problem

The problem investigated in this study was the extent to which a recently-graduated group of teachers and their supervisors in the schools perceived the teacher education programs undergone by those teachers as having been effective in developing in them the skills, attitudes and knowledge deemed necessary for the competent discharge of their duties in the schools.

Answers were sought to the following questions:

1. What are the perceptions of a group of first-year teachers and their supervisors concerning the performance of those teachers

during their initial year of teaching after training?

2. To what extent are the perceptions of first-year teachers concerning their performance related to (i) differences in grade level, (ii) personal variables, (iii) demographic variables, or (iv) experience in teaching prior to professional training?

3. To what extent do first-year teachers perceive their preparation programs as having assisted them to develop attributes which appear to be necessary for competent teaching?

4. To what extent are the perceptions of first-year teachers concerning their preparation related to (i) differences in grade level, (ii) personal variables, (iii) demographic variables, or (iv) experience in teaching prior to professional training?

5. What are the perceptions of first-year teachers concerning specific areas of strength or weakness in their teacher education programs?

6. Are there organizational factors within the teacher education programs that teachers or supervisors perceive as having contributed to the level of effectiveness of those programs?

Justification of the Study

The study was justified on several grounds. It provided a means of testing the worth of the evaluative process as a means of improving organizational planning and practices. It provided information which could contribute to institutional policy decisions pertaining to teacher education, and added a body of findings from a different context to research which explored the relationships between teacher preparation and subsequent teacher performance. The study further affirmed the generalizability of the concept that certain types of skills, attitudes and areas of knowledge are basic to successful instructional practice. The findings of the study indicated the relevance to actual school settings of the pre-service preparation offered to prosepctive teachers in The Bahamas, and identified areas of weakness in teacher competency in which in-service education appeared to be necessary. Finally, the study provided an opportunity for practitioners in the field to describe what they considered to be the most essential elements of teacher competence and to provide an assessment of the performance of first-year teachers.

Conceputal Framework

The following concepts provided the framework within which the study was conducted:

1. The fundamental purposes of teacher education are (a) to familiarize prospective teachers with the nature of the tasks they will be required to perform within the school setting, and (b) to provide them with the skills, attitudes and knowledge necessary for adequate discharge of those responsibilities.

2. The roles and functions of the teacher are closely related to the purposes and functions of the schools, which are to foster all aspects of the academic, social and personal growth of students.

3. Effective discharge of teaching responsibilities may be defined in terms of certain specific behaviours which appear (a) to be

related to increased student learning, (b) to foster students' social and personal growth, and (c) to delineate competent performance within the organizational framework of the school.

Principles associated with the evaluation of educational programs provided guidelines for the collection of data which might be appropriate to determine program effectiveness. A model was adopted which allowed the teacher education programs and beginning teacher experience to be conceptualized as a sequence of stages, about each of which evaluative data might be sought. In this study, the major focus was the final stage of the model -- the in-service performance of teachers.

Review of Related Literature

The literature reviewed in the study dealt with two perspectives of the problem: (1) the prevailing weaknesses of teacher education identified by critics both within and outside of the profession; and (2) the findings of empirical studies which dealt with the evaluation of teacher education programs.

Certain dominant themes emerged from the views of the critics:

1. There seemed to be a general consensus that the programs and practices of teacher education lacked a firm conceptual base which might infuse them with genuine purpose and meaning.

2. As a consequence of the foregoing, many programs were seen to be lacking in focus and cohesion.

3. Much of what was included in teacher education lacked relevance to the actual job of teaching, for the concept of this held in training institutions was often unrealistic.

4. Teacher education programs often failed to take into account the impact that the organizational culture of the schools would be likely to have on the performance of new teachers.

5. Organizational factors, both in respect of internal institutional arrangements and with regard to relationships with schools, bore substantially upon the degree of effectiveness teacher educations efforts might achieve.

6. Teacher education institutions in developing countries shared all the preceding weaknesses, but had to face additional problems arising from inadequate resources, an uneasy mix of training personnel, unclear objectives, and a complex, demanding educational environment.

Evaluation studies examined provided considerable evidence that many of the criticisms advanced were justified. For example, the recurrent plea for more practice in "real" settings seemed to emphasize the view that teacher preparation programs were seen as functioning largely in isolation from the realities of the schools.

Many studies employed as sources of data recent graduates and their supervisors, who provided perceptions regarding the strengths and weaknesses of programs in the light of the needs of the schools. The deficiencies which these groups most frequently perceived as existing in teachers' competence tended to be related to those skills necessary for the actual conduct of classroom responsibilities: classroom management; pupil control and discipline; the motivation of pupil interest; and the adapting of teaching to suit the individual needs of pupils.

Although student teaching was recognized by most respondents in these studies as the most useful part of pre-service preparation, this was seen to suffer from a variety of shortcomings. In many instances, graduates felt the experience should have been longer, should have come earlier in the program, should have been done in schools more like those in which they would eventually teach, and should have provided more systematic and informed supervision.

Teacher education programs in developing countries were seen to be handicapped by rigid, irrelevant and inappropriate curricula, a serious lack of necessary resources and the effects of unsuitable models of teaching provided by instructors.

Sources of Data

The study population consisted of those teachers who had graduated from College of The Bahamas teacher education programs in June or December of 1979 and who were teaching in Bahamian schools during the school year 1980 - 1981. Supervisors of those teachers were also included as respondents in the study.

Instrument Development

The instruments employed in the collection of data were designed specifically for use in this research, and consisted of questionnaires (one for teachers and one for supervisors) and semi-structured interviews.

Each questionnaire consisted of three parts. In Part I, personal and demographic information was sought from respondents in order to determine the degree to which perceptions might be related to such factors. Part II was designed around a list of thirty-seven teacher behaviours which represented areas of skill, attitudes and knowledge established as being important (a) to increased student learning, (b) to the fostering of students' personal development, and (c) to satisfactory performance within the organizational setting of the school. These items were grouped according to the following categories: lesson preparation, classroom management, lesson presentation, assessment, interpersonal relationships, and professional awareness. Teachers were asked to rate their own performance and the adequacy of their preparation in each behaviour by circling a number from 1 to 5 on two Likert-type scales. Supervisors were asked to rate the performance of teachers in those same behaviours.

The initial list of attributes from which the teacher behaviours were derived was generated from the literature on teacher education and on teaching. This list was submitted to various groups of educational practitioners in The Bahamas for their judgment concerning the validity of the items as indicators of important aspects of teacher performance. From the results of this procedure, a revised list of attributes was formulated. The items so identified were then expressed as teacher behaviours, on the assumption that such behaviours would represent an overt manifestation of the skills, attitudes and knowledge possessed by the teacher.

The behaviours arrived at on the basis of these procedures were compared with the objectives stated in courses included in the teacher education programs, in order to determine the legitimacy of using these items to measure the level of competence the programs had sought to develop. Faculty members at the College of The Bahamas confirmed in informal discussion that the behaviours included adequately represented the kinds of dimensions of teacher performance they emphasized in their courses.

In Part III of the questionnaires, open-ended questions afforded teachers and supervisors an opportunity to comment on general and specific aspects of the teacher education programs, and to make suggestions for their improvement.

Interview guides were prepared which incorporated areas of teacher behaviour similar to those included on the questionnaires, but which also sought more detailed information of a qualitative nature concerning respondents' perceptions of the teacher education programs.

Pilot-testing of both questionnaires and interviews was conducted with groups similar to the one which formed the population for the main study. The purpose of the tests was to discover whether the instruments would elicit the kind of information required for the purposes of the study, and to ascertain the validity of the items included as criteria of teacher performance. Results of the tests appeared to confirm that the instruments were appropriate and valid tools for the collection of data which would fulfil the purposes of the present investigation. Such minor changes as appeared to be necessary were made and the instruments were finalized for use in the main portion of the study.

Data Collection

Questionnaires were distributed to study participants at the end of January, 1981. Interviews were scheduled with approximately one half of the population of teachers and their supervisors. These were conducted during on-site visits to the relevant schools during the first three weeks of February, 1981. Twenty-three of the twenty-four teachers selected for interview actually participated, and seventeen of the nineteen relevant supervisors.

Follow-up procedures were undertaken during February, March and April of 1981, to encourage return of written instruments. By these means, completed questionnaires were secured from thirty-seven of the forty-nine teachers surveyed (76 percent) and thirty-one of the forty-four supervisors (70 percent).

Data Analysis

Numerical data from completed questionnaires were coded on data processing cards for computer analysis. These data were analyzed initially to determine the frequencies and percentage distribution of responses received on items in Parts I and II of the research instruments. Data pertaining to personal and demographic information were cross-tabulated to determine the extent to which such factors appeared to be related to responses received. As the total population of potential respondents had been surveyed, it was not considered appropriate to employ tests of inferential statistics.

Responses to open-ended questions on both teachers' and supervisors' questionnaires were grouped according to the school context in which respondents were working, and were scrutinized carefully to identify any possible patterns of response. These data were used to illuminate further perceptions expressed in numerical form on the rating scales.

Responses received in interviews were summarized and aggregated, again, according to the type and location of schools in which respondents were working. These responses were used to provide additional insights into perceptions revealed in questionnaires and to indicate other areas which appeared to be of concern to respondents. They included information relative to conditions prevailing in schools, details of teachers' teaching assignments, identification of areas in which teachers were experiencing difficulties, details of arrangements within teacher education programs, and the like.

Characteristics of Respondents

The results of detailed analyses of personal and demographic information provided on teachers' questionnaires demonstrated that the majority of responding teachers were female, aged 20-29, and had followed a program of study leading to a primary school teacher's certificate. The small group of junior secondary school teachers had specialized in a variety of subject combinations, most of which they were presently teaching. Several of these teachers were, however, teaching general subjects to remedial groups in junior secondary schools and others were teaching their special subjects at a remedial level in junior or senior secondary schools. The schools in which teachers were working ranged in size from very small (in some few instances with under 100 students) to very large (with enrollments of more than 1000).

Greater diversity was observed in the ages of supervisors, and there were almost equal numbers of men and women among them. All supervisors had had considerable teaching experience, and most had been in supervisory positions for substantial periods of time.

Summary of Findings

The first research question formulated in relation to the major purpose of the present study was the following:

> What are the perceptions of a group of first-year teachers and their supervisors concerning the performance of those teachers during their initial year of teaching after training?

In order to identify which of the thirty-seven behaviours included in the research instruments appeared to be most important from the perspective of the respondents in this study, teachers and supervisors were asked to list those five they considered to be most important and the the five they considered to be least important to their work. On the basis of combined rankings of the two groups, the most important behaviours were seen to be: (1) 1, *selecting appropriate subject content*; (2) 31, *motivating students to learn*; (3) 24, *diagnosing students' learning needs*; (4) 3, *using the knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities*; (5.5) 8, *grouping students for instruction*, and 17, *presenting information clearly*.

The overall means of teachers' self-ratings on twenty-one of the thirty-seven behaviours fell between 4 (*well*) and 5 (*very well*) on the five-point scale. On the remaining sixteen items, their assessments of their performance were represented by mean ratings which fell between the categories 3 (*adequately*) and 4 (*well*). In general, therefore, teachers appeared to feel that they were performing adequately or better on all aspects of teacher competence measured in this research instrument.

Certain categories of behaviours emerged as being areas of greater strength in the performance of teachers. Salient among these were interpersonal relationships (particularly those which referred to teachers' interaction with students and other teachers), professional awareness, and various dimensions of lesson presentation and classroom management. Teachers rated their performance relatively lower in the areas of

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assessment and lesson preparation.

Supervisors in general rated teachers' performance as falling between between the categories 4 (well) and 5 (very well) for the three teacher behaviours which pertained to colleagues within the school. For all other items but one, supervisors provided overall mean ratings which were placed at points between 3 (adequately) and 4 (well) on the five-point scale. In the case of that remaining item, evaluating own performance, teachers' mean rating fell just below 3 (adequately).

Supervisors rated teachers' performance highest in the area of classroom management and aspects of lesson presentation which referred to their use of subject knowledge and their businesslike approach to their teaching. Supervisors also rated particularly highly teachers' ability to work well with colleagues in the school setting. Teachers' weakest performance, according to numerical ratings provided by supervisors, lay in the areas of assessment, some aspects of lesson presentation (use of questioning techniques, use of varied teaching techniques, and individualization of instruction).

In relation to those behaviours considered to be most important, neither group of respondents rated teachers' performance to be especially strong. Generally, teachers appeared to be doing best in aspects of teaching which were judged to be of moderate or low importance.

The second research question speculated about the possible relationships of certain personal and demographic variables to teachers' perceptions concerning their own performance. It asked:

> To what extent are the perceptions of first-year teachers concerning their performance related to (i) differences in grade level, (ii) personal variables, (iii) demographic

variables, or (iv) experience in teaching prior to professional training?

Additional analyses of data were carried out on the basis of the following variables: type of program followed; certification received; type, location and size of schools in which respondents were working; and degree of experience teachers had had prior to professional training. The results of these analyses revealed that the variable most consistently related to teachers' perceptions was the type of school in which they were working.

For the purposes of this further analysis, teachers were categorized as primary, junior secondary or all-age school teachers. When teachers' responses were examined from this perspective, results demonstrated that, overall, primary school teachers rated their performance consistently highest. Teachers in all-age rural schools also provided generally high ratings, while junior secondary school teachers tended to award scores which were often substantially lower than those of their colleagues in the other two types of schools.

When supervisors' responses were compared on the basis of this same variable, results indicated that all-age school supervisors were most satisfied with the performance of their first-year teachers. Supervisors of junior secondary school teachers, though apparently quite satisfied with teachers' performance, were generally less favourable in their ratings than their counterparts in all-age schools. Primary school supervisors for their part, were even more moderate in their ratings, and appeared generally to be least satisfied with the performance of beginning teachers.

This latter finding was in sharp contrast with the perceptions that primary school teachers held of their own performance, as was seen when the ratings of teachers and supervisors in all groups were compared. There was greater congruence between the ratings provided by junior secondary teachers and their supervisors, though the ratings of the latter were generally lower than teachers' self-ratings of performance. The highest level of agreement between supervisors' and teachers' scores was seen in relation to individuals working in all-age schools.

Another variable employed in the further analysis of teachers' responses was that which referred to the type of College of The Bahamas program teachers had followed. For this purpose teachers were considered in two groups: those who had followed a program leading to a teacher's certificate only, and those who had followed a program leading to an associate degree with a teacher's certificate. The examination of teachers' responses on the basis of this variable provided no evidence that teachers' perceptions were significantly related to such a factor.

A final variable employed in the further analysis of teachers' responses was the degree of previous teaching experience possessed by those teachers. Because of the small number of respondents in some of the cells, the four categories initially provided on questionnaires were collapsed into two major groupings: teachers who had had some teaching experience prior to entering college, and those who had had none.

The results of this further analysis demonstrated that only in relation to the use of diagnostic skills and to the ability to establish satisfactory relationships with significant individuals in the school setting did previous teaching experience appear to be strongly associated with differences in teachers' perceptions.

The third research question asked:

> To what extent do first-year teachers perceive their preparation programs as having assisted them to develop attributes which appear to be necessary for competent teaching?

The overall picture of their teacher education programs reflected in teachers' ratings of their preparation was highly positive. Only fourteen mean ratings lower than 4 (well) on the five-point scale were awarded by teachers in general. The remaining twenty-three mean ratings fell between 4 (well) and 5 (very well). No mean rating was provided which fell below 3 (adequately) on the scale. However, a number of respondents made use of the categories 2 (poorly) and 1 (very poorly) to describe their preparation. The category of behaviours in which this most frequently occurred was that of interpersonal relationships, and the behaviour for which the largest number of teachers -- eleven, or 30 percent of respondents -- perceived their preparation to have been poor or very poor was number 33, communicating positively with parents. Other examples of behaviours for which a number of teachers assigned ratings of 2 (poorly) or 1 (very poorly) to their preparation were 35, working well with administrative staff (seven teachers or 19 percent) and 36, working well with school support staff (six teachers or 16 percent). In the case of item 1, selecting appropriate subject content, the behaviour considered to be most important by both teachers and supervisors, although the overall mean rating provided was quite high (3.94), four teachers (11 percent) assigned a rating of 2 (poorly) to their perception of their preparation. The behaviour placed 25.5 in the overall ranking of teachers' assessment of their preparation. Generally, in fact, teachers did not perceive their preparation to have been strongest in those aspects of behaviour which they and their supervisors considered to be most important. However, favourable ratings were assigned to their preparation for specific classroom behaviours such as the use of effective questioning techniques, the use of varied teaching techniques, the encouragement of students' participation in class, the use of praise, etc.. These were all behaviours which research has found to be positively related to increased pupil learning.

When teachers' ratings of their preparation were compared with those they had awarded their performance, results indicated that, in nineteen cases out of thrity-seven, teachers on the average rated their preparation higher than their performance. Teachers assigned higher ratings for their preparation than for their performance in aspects of behaviour which referred specifically to dimensions of classroom teaching. Teachers assigned higher ratings for their performance than for their preparation in all facets of interpersonal relationships.

The fourth research question asked:

> To what extent are the perceptions of first-year teachers concerning their preparation related to (i) differences in grade level, (ii) personal variables, (iii) demographic variables, or (iv) experience in teaching prior to professional training?

When teachers' responses were compared on the basis of the type of school in which they were working, primary school teachers were seen to have provided highest ratings for their preparation overall. All-age school teachers provided next highest ratings. The ratings of junior secondary teachers were lowest in almost all instances. Primary and all-age school teachers assigned highest ratings of the areas of lesson preparation, lesson presentation and classroom management. Junior secondary school teachers provided consistently high ratings in the area of lesson presentation, and in those areas of interpersonal relationships which concerned relations with students.

When ratings awarded by the three groups to their performance and preparation were compared, it was found that primary and all-age school teachers assigned higher ratings for their preparation than for their performance in most cases. Junior secondary teachers, on the other hand, provided more positive ratings for their performance in most instances.

When ratings were compared on the basis of the academic program followed at college, results demonstrated that associate degree teachers perceived their preparation to have been stronger in dimensions concerning knowledge areas and relations with students. Non-associate degree teachers perceived their programs to have been most effective in areas pertaining to the methodological aspects of teaching.

A comparison of the ratings assigned to their performance and preparation by these two groups showed that associate degree teachers assigned higher ratings for their performance in the majority of cases. Non-associate degree teachers on average accorded more positive ratings for their preparation.

When ratings were compared on the basis of teachers' experience in teaching prior to professional training, it was found that the teachers with prior experience rated their preparation more favourably than did teachers without previous experience. When their ratings for performance and preparation were compared, results showed that teachers with previous teaching experience assigned higher ratings, on average, for their preparation than for their performance. The reverse was true in the case of teachers without prior experience. However, as a rule, in the case of both groups, when high ratings were provided for preparation in a specific area, ratings assigned for performance also tended to be high.

The fifth research question asked:

> What are the perceptions of first-year teachers concerning specific areas of strength or weakness in their teacher education programs?

Teachers perceived their programs to have been strongest in providing them with skills to prepare for and present their lessons. They also appeared to have been adequately prepared to set up an appropriate learning environment and generally to manage their classrooms.

Teachers identified specific weaknesses that they perceived in their programs. Thse included: insufficient preparation in the skills of diagnosis and remediation; too little guidance on how to teach students of low ability; too little attention to dimensions of human relations; too little preparation for the administrative aspects of teaching; and a lack of attention to the special needs of the team-teaching or multi-grade situations. Courses considered to be most valuable were the methods courses. Teaching practice was generally considered to be the single most important aspect of the training program. Courses in Educational Psychology were also judged as being of value, as was the course which provided guidelines in classroom management. Junior secondary teachers prized their academic courses in their specialist areas.

However, academic courses were often considered to have been the least useful as many were perceived to be irrelevant to teaching, and, in some cases, unchallenging.

The sixth and final research question asked:

> Are there any organizational factors within the teacher education programs that teachers or supervisors perceive as having contributed to the level of effectiveness of those programs?

Teachers' perceptions of organizational factors were considered in relation to four domains: organizational characteristics; environmental characteristics; employee characteristics; and managerial policies and practices.

In respect of characteristics of the organization, the present structural arrangements of assigning faculty to divisions according to their subject speciality and drawing on those specialist areas for program needs, were generally seen to be satisfactory. Indeed, a need was perceived for even greater degrees of specialization of function among Education faculty, particularly in regard to the supervision of teaching practice.

There was some disagreement concerning the desirability of lessening the control of the external agency (the University of The West Indies) over certification requirements, and according this responsibility to college faculty themselves. A number of respondents felt that such a course might encourage the possibility of bias in evaluation procedures.

Teachers generally agreed, however, that the actual responsibilities of faculty should be specifically prescribed and made known to them and to students so that consistency of practices might be ensured.

Various aspects of the technology of the program were seen as needing revision: the specification of program guidelines; the length of of the program; the weighting given to various program components; and, especially, the arrangements for teaching practice.

Significant aspects of the external environment (of the programs) appeared in some cases to have been inaccurately or incompletely interpreted in the teacher education programs, and certain realities prevailing within the schools had not been dealt with in the preparation offered. Teachers perceived that there had been a general lack of direction both in their programs and in the college as a whole. This had had a demoralizing effect upon them. Certain specific aspects of the the program -- especially the teaching practice experience -- created particular stresses.

The quality of instruction offered by faculty emerged as a positive strength of the programs, as did the willingness of faculty to provide assistance to students. There were some complaints however, that there had been too little demonstration teaching and too much lecturing.

Physical facilities and resources provided at the college were judged to be inadequate. Also there were often gaps in communication which resulted in teachers' receiving incomplete or inaccurate information about their programs.

Comparison With Other Studies

The findings of this study confirmed some of those encountered in studies reviewed in Chapter 3, but also diverged in interesting ways.

1. Importance of teacher behaviours. All the behaviours included in this study, drawn, for the most part, from research studies carried out elsewhere, were considered to be important. There was even considerable overlap between those behaviours selected as being the most important and the most important skills identified in the study conducted with beginning teachers in Alberta (Ratsoy et al., 1979).

2. Program strengths and weaknesses. Like respondents in almost every study reviewed, teachers in The Bahamas viewed as the most valuable parts of their programs those components which gave direct and specific training for classroom teaching: practice teaching and methods courses. This preference by teachers was particularly noted in the evaluation studies carried out by the following: Zulauf (1956), Beaty (1969), Clark (1977), Lynch and Kuehl (1979-80) in the United States; Rieger and Woods (1971), Brehaut and Gill (1977), Ratsoy et al. (1979), and Greene (1980) in Canada; and Marr (1973) in India.

In common, again, with many of the foregoing studies, findings also indicated that teachers perceived a need for earlier, longer and more diversified experience in classroom situations, which would provide them with a more realistic view of what teaching was really like. The need for this was particularly noted by Elliott and Steinkellner (1979) who, like so many other evaluators of teacher education, also advocated closer cooperation between the training institution and the schools. This same need was perceived by respondents in the present study.

The interaction between faculty and students was seen to be a very satisfactory aspect of College of The Bahamas preparation programs, as was also found for other programs by Clark (1977), Ratsoy et al. (1979), and Greene (1980). Moreover, in the present study, the quality of instruction provided by faculty was seen to be an area of strength in the programs. In this respect, the findings differed from those of Brehaut and Gill (1977). Nevertheless, the complaint that there was too little demonstration of desirable teaching methods reflected a perspective similar to that encountered in many other studies, and in particular, by Marr in the Punjab.

Teachers' need for more diagnostic skills, identified in the present study, was one stressed by Clark (1977). Further, many of the studies reviewed revealed the failure of teacher preparation programs to provide adequate training in human relations. This finding was also encountered in the present study.

Unlike respondents in other studies reviewed (e.g., Zulauf, 1956; Jay, 1968; Rieger and Woods, 1971; Rosser and Denton, 1977; Elliott and Steinkellner, 1978, Ratsoy et al., 1979; and Greene, 1980), teachers in this study appeared to have received sufficient training in maintaining classroom order and discipline.

Organizational factors identified by respondents in the current study as contributing to the level of effectiveness of the programs recall certain ones cited as being significant by several of the theorists reviewed. First, as Sarason et al. (1962), Macdonald

(1970), Ryan (1970) and others had maintained, there seemed to be a lack of congruence between some of what was taught in the teacher education programs and what was actually demanded in the schools. That this situation was a result of insufficient flows of communication between teacher educators and school personnel (as maintained by respondents in the present study), was also posited by such authors as Pedersen and Fleming (1979) and Clark and Marker (1975). However, in the study conducted by Ryan et al. (1979) teachers recognized the limitations of preparation programs -- i.e. that such programs could only provide the basic knowledge and skills generally needed by teachers, and that, since every teaching situation was likely to be in large measure unique, these general abilities could only be minimal assistance.

Turner (1978) had identified the wide diversity of types of schools as a characteristic of education in developing countries which teacher education institutions in such countries had to face. This factor emerged as significant in the present study, since a number of the weaknesses identified by teachers related to the failure of their programs to prepare them for these differing kinds of settings.

Turner (1978) had also defined typical conditions prevailing within teacher preparation institutions in developing countries which were found to prevail in the present study: inadequate physical facilities, insufficient materials and resources, and the lack of actual classroom experience among some of the more highly qualified members of faculty who were native to the country.

CONCLUSIONS

In this section, conclusions are presented which derive from the findings of the present study. As such, they are subject to the same limitations which prevail in the study as a whole.

Limitations of the Study

It must first be recognized that this was a cross-sectional study, conducted with a small population which may not be representative of populations at other points in time or in other localities. Further, the research focused only upon the teacher education programs offered in one institution and, except in the review of related research, did not seek comparative data from other programs elsewhere. Findings, therefore, may have limited generalizability.

Yet another limitation of the study resides in the methods adopted for the collection of data. The research instruments employed were designed specifically for the present study, and although these were subjected to pilot testing, circumstances did not permit further tests of reliability.

The distribution of returns of the written instruments represented another limiting factor in the study. While 100 percent returns were received from teachers in schools in the capital, only 48 percent were received from teachers in schools in Family Islands. Similarly, while all New Providence supervisors responded to their questionnaires, only 35 percent of Family Island supervisors returned completed instruments. The relatively low rate of returns from Family Island participants was, however, offset to some degree by the high level of response in interviews. Eleven of the twelve Family Island teachers selected for interview actually participated, as did eight of a possible nine supervisors. All twelve New Providence teachers selected were interviewed, as were nine of the possible ten supervisors.

Finally, the findings of this study were derived totally from the perceptions of respondents, and consequently represent the interpretations placed by those individuals upon their own experiences.

Conclusions Based on the Findings of This Study

Given the foregoing limitations, the conclusions of the study are presented tentatively as possible hypotheses which might be subjected to confirmation through further research.

1. The finding that the behaviours used in this study as indicators of competent teacher performance were all perceived by respondents to be of importance, suggests that the concept of the universality of the role of the teacher may be justified, for all behaviours but one, #15, using Standard English appropriately, had been drawn from those established in other contexts as being important. Participants in the study suggested few additional behaviours, and in no instance was such an addition suggested by more than one individual. While the present list cannot be considered to be exhaustive, the use of similar delineations of teaching would appear to be a productive base for program planning in teacher education.

2. The generally favourable views of the performance of first-year teachers by both teachers and supervisors suggest that, basically,

in its present form, the program is capable of producing graduates who can function competently in the schools. However, it may also be concluded from the generally lower ratings by supervisors that teachers' views of their own performance may be somewhat idealized. This perception would seem to confirm the relatively low rating supervisors assigned to teachers' ability to evaluate their own performance, and to lend credence to the suggestion by Mouly (1970:302) that in self-ratings individuals are likely to present themselves as they would like to be seen rather than as they really are.

3. The finding that teachers' perceptions were quite consistently related to the type of school in which they were working suggests that contextual factors may play a strong mediating role in the level of effectiveness which teacher education programs may achieve. It would, appear, further, that the value of professional training is judged against its applicability within a given work setting. This conclusion would seem to have important implications for program planning and implementation.

4. The specific differences perceived between the perceptions of teachers and supervisors in various school settings suggest that the groups may be employing different criteria in their assessment of teacher performance. The finding that the greatest discrepancy existed between teachers and supervisors in primary schools gives rise to the conclusion that the communication of expectations between supervisors and teachers might be least extensive in those contexts. The smaller work groups which are likely to prevail within subject

departments in secondary schools and within the smaller staffs of all-age schools may result in higher levels of interaction and better understanding of performance expectations.

4. The finding that junior secondary teachers rated their performance least favourably of the three groups implies that the greatest number of unforeseen demands may be encountered in large secondary schools with highly differentiated populations and programs. It suggests also that dealing with adolescents may entail special needs for which teachers are not currently being sufficiently prepared. However, some of the particular circumstances relative to the experience of junior secondary teachers in the present study may have significance in this regard. Several of these teachers, who had been trained to teach at the junior secondary level, were teaching at the senior secondary level. Further, a number of such teachers were teaching remedial groups at the junior or senior secondary level -- an activity for which they had received little, if any, special training. These factors may have contributed to their perceptions of the adequacy of their preparation.

5. The absence of strong differences in teachers' ratings of their performance when these were compared on the basis of academic program followed or in the light of the presence or absence of previous teaching experience leads to the conclusion that, in general, these were not significant factors in teachers' perceptions of the adequacy of their performance. However, the substantially more favourable ratings provided by teachers who had worked in schools prior to their training for those items which referred to diagnosis of students'

learning needs and dealing with personnel within the schools, suggested that skill in these areas might tend to increase with confidence and experience.

6. The high ratings that teachers awarded to their preparation leads to the conclusion that the preparation was generally adequate to provide teachers with needed capabilities. This conclusion appeared to be supported by the fact that in many instances respondents assigned more positive ratings for their preparation than they did for their performance.

7. The finding that junior secondary teachers rated their preparation less favourably than did the other two groups implied, once again, that preparation offered in these particular teacher education programs might be more appropriate to the demands of the primary and all-age rural schools than to the secondary school context.

8. The finding that teachers who had undergone the more academically oriented associate degree program appeared to value highly the thorough preparation they had received in knowledge areas, but to demonstrate less confidence in the preparation they had received for certain methodological aspects of teaching suggests that the additional time devoted to the provision of greater depth of academic background may have been spent at the expense of the development of professional skills. A more acceptable balance may need to be found between these two dimensions. The converse may be required in the instance of teachers in the alternative programs.

9. The generally more favourable ratings of their preparation by

teachers with previous teaching experience argues that training may be more meaningful to those who can place the theoretical principles learned within the framework of real classroom situations, and may point to the desirability of more contact with actual field settings during the course of preparation programs.

10. Findings concerning the strengths and weaknesses of the teacher education programs lead to the conclusion that the technical and methodological aspects of teaching are proficiently covered and should be sustained, but that more diagnostic approaches appear not to be sufficiently explored.

11. The satisfaction teachers expressed with the present deployment of faculty within teacher education programs would seem to confirm that the arrangement of programs according to a concept of functional specialization is a defensible one. However, the indication that teachers' needs were sometimes not taken into account in work done in academic divisions pointed to possible lack of adequate coordination between these divisions and the Education division.

12. The apparent inappropriateness of some of the courses taken by teachers to their needs might result from a more fundamental factor: the lack of a clearly understood conceptual base which might inform the various activities of the teacher education programs, and define the roles of the various partners in the enterprise. To some extent, the existence of an external certificating body which sets specific certification requirements has allowed teacher educators to avoid the responsibility for establishing such a base.

13. Teachers' perceptions that their professional courses and teaching practice were rushed and stressful leads to the conclusion that there may be a need for a longer period of time and a less pressured atmosphere to develop fully the necessary professional competence. In particular, the fact that, although teaching practice was seen to be the most valuable dimension of preparation programs, it was also the source of great frustration and stress suggests that there is a need for a careful examination of the role this experience is expected to play in the preparation of teachers. The present positioning of teaching practice at the end of the program of training and the highly evaluative dimension of the practice appear to militate against its being of optimal value as a learning experience.

14. The incomplete and idealistic view of schools presented in teacher education programs appears to result from insufficient contact between the training institution and the field. Such contacts as do exist seem to be largely informal without carefully established channels of communication through which needed information may be fed from and into the college.

15. The quality of instruction and faculty-student interaction seem to be important strengths within the teacher education program. However, findings also suggest that faculty may need to model more consistently the kinds of teaching approaches they wish teachers to adopt, and to provide in their relations with students the kind of support and mentoring they advocate that prospective teachers should adopt with their pupils.

16. The intensely felt opinions of teachers concerning the adequacy of facilities and resources within the college leads to the conclusion that such factors contribute significantly both to the level of productivity achieved within the programs, and to the level of satisfaction participants experience.

17. From the findings of this study it may be concluded that insufficient levels of communication within a teacher education program may hamper students' progress through the program and create frustration and resentment among those students. A further result may be that student teachers may view the institution as a whole as lacking in purpose. Since an important aspect of a teacher's preparation would seem to be his learning to function proficiently within a healthy organization such negative outcomes may have an impact on subsequent teacher performance.

IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study and the conclusions presented above have a number of implications both for administrators of institutions in which teachers are prepared, and for teacher educators themselves.

Implications for Educational Administration

The first set of implications derived concern the theory of educational administration.

Theory. First, the overall findings that the evaluative processes employed in this study identified areas of organizational functioning which require administrative intervention implies that systematic assessment of ongoing activities is an important contributing factor to productive planning and decision making, and confirms the relevance of this dimension of administrative responsibility.

Second, the findings of the study in relation to the central purpose of the investigation illustrate the possibility that organizational processes may have diverse outcomes. While teachers in the present study perceived their preparation programs to have been generally successful in providing them with attributes necessary for their professional performance, the indication was that they had not, on the whole, experienced a high level of satisfaction during the course of their training. Some of the organizational factors which contributed positively to the one outcome -- productivity -- may have detracted from the other -- satisfaction.

One such factor appeared to be the structural arrangements within the program. While the structuring of programs according to a concept of functional specialization may be efficient and basically effective, it may also, as suggested in this study, be accompanied by compartmentalization of effort if extensive coordination and communication between divisions do not occur. Further, there may well be a tendency for the several parts of an educational institution which are competing for scarce resources, to seek to enhance their relative positions within the institution by planning activities which will reflect favourably upon the abilities and performance of group members, rather than address specifically the needs of students.

Where programs also depend upon the contribution of individuals outside of the institution, the need for coordination and clear delineation of roles is even more critical. It would therefore appear to be necessary that the purposes and nature of the interaction be specified and agreed upon, with the respective responsibilities of participating individuals being clearly defined. Further, formalized channels of communication are needed to ensure that essential information may be transmitted systematically to and from the participating institutions. However, an important additional dimension to these relationships seems to be that high levels of commitment are unlikely to result unless all partners recognize that they are receiving something of value from the exchange. One of the functions of administrators in such circumstances would seem to be to negotiate the relative contributions which particular organizations might make to one another in order to render their partnership worthwhile. These implications are in line with existing principles of interorganizational linkages.

Research. From the theoretical implications identified, there would seem to be several implications for research both within the specific institution under investigation and in educational institutions in general. There would seem, first, to be a need for research into the exact nature and extent of internal communication flows within the organization under study, and for a more extensive assessment of the kinds of impact these seem to have upon the functioning and satisfaction of individuals within the organization. Further, an investigation into the specific nature and extent of existing linkages between the college and the schools would seem likely to be a valuable undertaking.

A comparative study of teacher education programs and other career-oriented programs offered within the college (e.g., business or technical programs) would provide useful insights into the comparative effectiveness of the various patterns of training adopted. This kind of investigation might focus upon such factors as the design and implementation of programs, the degree of autonomy enjoyed by program planners and implementors in each instance, patterns of funding, resource allocation, links with the receiving professions, methods of certification, and apparent impact of the respective programs.

In broader terms, research into the whole concept of specialization within multi-purpose educational organizations appears to be worthy of investigation. Various dimensions of the question might be studied; the degree to which the practice more effectively provides greater depth and/or breadth of information to students; the degree to which creative and innovative instruction may arise; what conflicts, if any, appear to result from such arrangements; what level of commitment is likely to result among participants; and what degree of satisfaction is enjoyed by both faculty and students.

A study might also profitably be made of the degree to which decentralization of authority within programs of study in post-secondary institutions appears to result in higher levels of performance, satisfaction and accountability.

Practice. The implications for practice which are cited in the following discussion relate specifically to the institution under consideration. However, they are illustrative of the kinds of practical procedures which administrators in teacher education institutions in general might undertake in their efforts to establish the more collaborative approaches to teacher preparation which recent research has increasingly shown to be a compelling necessity. From the findings of this study, the organizational factor in the teacher education programs which is most likely to require immediate administrative intervention is the establishment, or revitalization of channels of communication within the organization itself, and between the college and the schools.

An initial interdivisional task force might be established within the college to consider the findings of this study and others like it, and to determine the implications for program review. Participation in this activity should next be extended to representative practitioners from the schools, the professional organizations and professional officers from the Ministry of Education. The fundamental purpose of such consultation would be to determine more clearly what roles teacher education is to play in the overall pattern of national education, and the specific contributions which various sections of the educational community are to make to it. Administrators at the college might well serve as coordinators of such activities.

Following such a definition of purpose, negotiations would need to be undertaken with the certificating body concerning the specific nature of certification requirements which will prevail, and the most acceptable means of meeting these.

There is likely to be a need for policy changes concerning allocation of resources among various college programs. These will have to be carefully formulated, documented and legitimated. In order to bring about the more satisfactory arrangements shown by the findings of this study to be necessary in relation to teaching practice, additional funding may need to be negotiated as well.

A final, necessary undertaking would seem to be the seeking of a more active role for the college in the in-service programs of teacher education which are currently the sole responsibility of the Ministry of Education. Findings of this study suggest that in-service activities are likely to be most meaningful for beginning teachers if they address perceived areas of need which may not have been adequately covered in their pre-service programs. The present arrangement appears to entail programs which are decided upon at the Ministry level, and while undoubtedly of great value, these may not always meet the most pressing classroom needs of new teachers.

In all of the undertakings outlined, there will be critical questions which have to be faced squarely if the proposed collaboration between the college and other parts of the educational system is to achieve the desired results. Evans (1978:35-36) raised a number of these, concerning the definition and the nature of the collaboration proposed, the motives and commitment of participating bodies, the most appropriate administrative arrangements, and the like. Wiles and Branch (1979:35-43) presented a variety of possible models for achieving this collaboration which addressed similar questions, and analysed the potential benefits and problems associated with each.

Implications for Teacher Education

The findings of the present study have a number of implications for theory, research and practice in teacher education as well.

Theory. Many of the implications for teacher education theory derived from the findings of this study confirm similar ones articulated elsewhere. The finding, for example, that in this study, teachers' perceptions were most consistently related to the school context in which they were working implies that the preparation of teachers is inextricably associated with the real world of the receiving profession, and as such must derive its major impetus from the kinds of roles teachers have to perform. This is necessary if it is to enjoy any degree of genuine credibility among practitioners. That at least some dimensions of the roles of teachers can be defined with some degree of validity appears to be confirmed by the findings of this study that teacher behaviours which were drawn from research in teaching conducted in one context were perceived as being relevant and important in quite a different one.

It would appear to be appropriate, therefore, that one significant aspect of teacher education should be the development of proficiency in the kinds of behaviours which appear likely to contribute to adequate performance. In the pursuit of such ends, however, there may be the danger that training programs might degenerate into a series of "tips for teachers", and care must be taken among those responsible for its conduct to arrive at a clear understanding of what underpinnings of knowledge and thought must also be provided. This would seem to entail a need to analyze the more broad-ranging role of teacher education as a significant part of the whole educational pattern. Extensive sharing of ideas between practising teachers, administrators and teacher educators might result in greater consensus concerning the nature of the teacher's work and appropriate forms and acceptable levels of teacher performance. From these considerations, moreover, one is led to speculate upon what might be the most appropriate means of developing in prospective teachers the kinds of attributes desired. The "model" represented by the programs investigated in this study might be designated as being a "knowledge-centred" one, since it appears to be based on the premise that if teachers have sufficient information about important dimensions of their roles, they will be able to perform these more effectively. That this approach is capable of providing a satisfactory level of competence is evidenced by the present findings. However, the inherent drawbacks to such a conceptualization are also demonstrated in this study as in so many others. Teachers are likely to have difficulty in effecting the transfer from theory to practice, and they may perceive some aspects of their preparation as being irrelevant to the job of teaching, since the reasons for their inclusion may not have been made clear to them.

What appears to be needed is a system of teacher preparation which would bring together a strong foundation of theoretical knowledge with effective training experiences which might enable prospective teachers to develop the ability to translate their knowledge into meaningful professional behaviour within the context of the schools. Such programs would seem to need to make reference to certain of the situational factors which are likely to be significant in beginning teachers' experience. This might possibly be most satisfactorily accomplished by providing candidates for teaching with the opportunity to be exposed to as many varied educational settings as possible in the course of their field experience.

Research. The research undertaken in the present study, like so much that is undertaken in teacher education, depended solely upon perceptual data. It would seem to be necessary, if attempts are to be made to determine which forms of teacher preparation appear to be most effective in producing teachers who can perform adequately in classroom teaching, to seek to establish more specific relationships between various types of preparation experiences and actual manifestations of teacher behaviour on the job.

An associated line of investigation which would appear to be worthy of further exploration is that described by Fuller and Brown (1975): the attempt to identify and understand the nature and the sequence of the professional and personal concerns which beginning teachers experience. Such research might provide valuable insights into the ways in which training experiences might be designed.

In specific reference to activities which might ensue from the present study, a valuable procedure might to be try to validate teachers' perceptions by examining them in the light of various objective measures. Teachers' perceptions of the adequacy of their performance and that of their preparation might be matched against variables such as (1) the qualifications possessed by teachers on entry into the program; (b) teachers' level of performance during the course of the program; and (c) the results they achieved in their final comprehensive examinations.

An additional undertaking in this regard might be research which would focus on the actual observation of teachers' performance in the classroom with a view to determining to what extent teachers' self-ratings appear to be supported by their actual behaviour.

An important form of baseline research which appears to be indicated from the findings of this study is the thorough description of the actual variety of conditions prevailing within the educational system which might have a bearing upon aspects of teacher education. This might be undertaken from an interdisciplinary point of view, and focus upon different dimensions of importance: curriculum, demographic and sociological factors, organizational factors and the like.

It would seem profitable also, given the findings of the present study that teachers' perceptions of their preparation may be related to the degree of experience they possess, to repeat the present study after a period of three years, in order to discover if any substantial shifts of perspective will have occurred.

Finally, a more ambitious but valuable undertaking would be to mount a longitudinal study which might trace teachers' development of competence throughout the period of their training and in their initial years of practice in the field.

Practice. Specific action to be taken by teacher educators in the light of the findings of the present study would seem to entail two major perspectives. First, suitable in-service activities might be planned which would seek to remedy deficiencies perceived by teachers in their pre-service preparation. These would include the provision of additional training in diagnosis and remediation, and in human relations.

Given the finding of the present study that the behaviours which served as indicators of teacher performance were considered important both by teachers and supervisors in the field, it would seem appropriate for teacher educators to scrutinize carefully existing components of the programs to determine to what extent current course offerings focus specifically on developing those types of behaviours. Despite the fact that in the preliminary stages of this research, faculty seemed to indicate that their courses did seek to develop similar competencies, the actual findings of the study suggest that some areas may be in need of strengthening.

The regular and systematic use of feedback obtained through evaluation of current practices for the purposes of program renewal seems to be an important implication for practice among teacher educators in general.

CONCLUDING COMMENT

The fact that the procedures undertaken in the present study were able to provide insights into the strengths and weaknesses associated with the design and implementation of the teacher education programs investigated, appeared to confirm the utility of the approach as a means of improving organizational planning and practices. Although the information sought was perceptual in nature, the use of multiple sources of data (teachers and supervisors), and more than one means of data collection (questionnaires and interviews) provided a picture that was rich in useful detail.

One final implication remains for teacher educators and administrators of teacher education programs in developing countries. The striking similarities observed between the findings of this study and those of research into teacher education in the developed world --

North America, particularly -- imply that the basic values inherent in the substance and models of such programs are fundamentally the same. This is understandable since so many of the individuals responsible for the preparation of teachers in developing nations are themselves products of higher education institutions in developed countries. However, the finding of the present study that such models and substance do not always achieve goodness of fit with the perceived demands of the context in which they are applied suggests that these may not be entirely appropriate or adequate. It would appear, therefore, that an important initial undertaking in any attempt at program renewal should be scrupulous examination of the concepts underlying preparation activities in the light of existing social and educational realities, and in relation to the needs of all segments of the school population to be served. Such an analysis of needs would seem, ideally, to demand wide participation from the teaching profession in general, as well as from the broader community, since it encompasses necessarily the consideration of the fundamental objectives of schooling itself. Were such honest appraisal of purpose to occur, both teacher education and the educational system as a whole might move closer to achieving a more significant impact upon the desired development of young people.

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APPENDIX A

BACKGROUND TO COLLEGE OF THE BAHAMAS TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

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BACKGROUND TO COLLEGE OF THE BAHAMAS
TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

In order to put into meaningful perspective the purposes and findings of the present study, the following account of significant aspects of the College of The Bahamas teacher education programs is provided.

ORIGINS OF THE COLLEGE

The College of The Bahamas came into being by Act of Parliament in October, 1974. It brought together under one central administration four existing institutions, in the expectation that a single, strong, multi-purpose organization could serve the post-secondary educational needs of the country more effectively and efficiently than a number of separate, isolated units.

The four constituent bodies were:

The Bahamas Teachers' College -- New Providence
San Salvador Teachers' College -- San Salvador
C.R. Walker Technical College -- New Providence
The Sixth Form of the Government High School -- New Providence

The new college occupied two campuses, one located, initially, on the site of the former Bahamas Teachers' College, and the other on the site of the former technical college.

The work previously carried out by the individual institutions was redistributed among the seven teaching divisions of the college (see Figure 2) as described below.

Activity: The Preparation of Teachers

Institutions formerly responsible:

Bahamas Teachers' College and San Salvador Teachers' College.

College of The Bahamas Divisions now responsible:

Academic components: Humanities, Natural Science and Social Science Divisions.

Professional components: Education Divisions.

Activity: Secretarial Studies and Business Administration

Institution formerly responsible:

C.R. Walker Technical College.

College of The Bahamas Divisions now responsible:

Academic components: Humanities, Natural Science and Social Science Divisions.

Professional components: Business and Administrative Studies Division.

Activity: Technical Training

Institution formerly responsible:

C.R. Walker Technical College

College of The Bahamas Divisions now responsible:

Academic components: Humanities, Natural Science and Social Science Divisions.

Professional or vocational components: Applied Science and Technical and Vocational Studies Divisions.

Activity: University Preparation; General Certificate of Education Advanced Level Examinations.

Institution formerly responsible:

The Sixth Form of the Government High School.

College of The Bahamas Divisions now responsible: Humanities, Natural Science and Social Science Divisions.

Programs were reorganized into cooperative, interdivisional offerings where previously they had been self-contained.

THE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

The organization of the teacher education programs reflects the new approach adopted in the College of The Bahamas instructional format (see Figure 5). Various aspects of that organization which are considered germane to the concerns of the present study are described in some detail below.

Location

The programs are offered at the main campus of the college, which is now located on the site formerly occupied by the Government High School in the Oakes Field area of New Providence. The Education division shares this facility with three of the other teaching divisions -- Humanities, Natural Science and Social Science -- and with the administrative departments of the college.

Physical facilities (classrooms, laboratories, specialist rooms, library, and sports facilities) are shared by students and faculty associated with all four different divisions.

Faculty

Faculty involved in the preparation of teachers include the various members of the academic divisions who provide instruction in the general and specialist subject areas, as well as those in the Education division who offer the professional portions of the programs. It is these latter individuals who assume the major responsibility for the student teachers.

A number of the faculty members of the Education division were formerly associated with one or the other of the original teachers' colleges which were absorbed into the College of The Bahamas structure in 1975. There has been a relatively high turnover of staff since that date, and the division has tended to suffer from a continuing shortage of personnel. As a result, it has, from time to time, been obliged to depend upon the services of lecturers in other divisions in order to meet its commitments.

Students

Since the inception of the college, the teacher education programs have accounted for the largest number of students of any program on the Oakes Field campus, with some two hundred or more prospective teachers being enrolled at any given time.

Students tend to be of two main types: those who have entered college directly after graduation from high school, and others who have worked for periods of up to ten years as untrained teachers in the Bahamian school system.

Instruction

Courses and other instructional experiences are designed to be one semester (fourteen weeks) in length. In many subject areas, these are arranged sequentially, with successful completion of one level being a pre-requisite to the next.

Assignment of students to courses or sections of courses is fundamentally a random procedure, with students compiling their own schedules in accordance with the demands of their programs and with reference to the master timetable which is prepared for the entire college. Registration is carried out according to year of enrollment and in alphabetical order. Most divisions assign to each student an advisor who aids in the selection of appropriate courses. This has not always been possible within the Education division because of the large numbers of students involved. Advisory sessions have therefore tended to be conducted on a group basis.

Although there are a certain number of "content" courses designed specifically for prospective teachers, the majority of the academic courses taken by teacher education students during the first two years of their programs are ones which are open to all students of the college. Though teacher education students may take some Education courses in their second year, the bulk of their professional courses are held during the final year of the programs.

The large part of the instruction of student teachers takes place on the college campus itself. There is only one period on teaching practice, which generally occurs during the last semester of the students' program. This teaching practice is held in public and private schools in New Providence whose principals agree to receive students. The responsibility for the supervision of student teachers rests solely with the college, although an attempt is made to place the students with experienced classroom teachers who seem willing to offer guidance and assistance. These teachers do not receive any financial remuneration for their part in the enterprise, nor do they participate formally in the final evaluation of the students.

Requirements

Programs are designed within the college, but are subject to the approval of the Joint Board of Teacher Education of the University of The West Indies, which is the external certificating body.

Prospective teachers have to meet college requirements in respect of the courses prescribed, but, in addition, at the end of their programs, they are also obliged to write a series of comprehensive examinations in both academic and professional subjects, in accordance with the external requirements. Further, final evaluation of the teaching practice is carried out jointly by the college supervisor and a moderating team from the Joint Board. Usually, a professional officer from the Ministry of Education and Culture is also invited to join this team.

An additional requirement for teachers in the junior secondary program is the completion of a research study on some problem of relevance to classroom teaching. This work is graded first by college supervisors, then by members of the University of The West Indies moderation team. As is the case in respect of the teaching practice evaluation, the final grade is jointly decided by the internal and external examiners.

Certification

The official mandate for the certification of Bahamian teachers has been awarded by the government of The Bahamas to the regional university.

Upon completion of all necessary coursework, and after successful performance in the final examinations and teaching practice, teachers are awarded a University of The West Indies Teacher's Certificate. Those who complete the additional requirements for a College of The Bahamas Associate Degree receive, as well, this college qualification.

The Associate Degree

To qualify for a College of The Bahamas Associate Degree, students are required to complete twenty-seven credit hours in college-level[1] general education courses, drawn from those offered by the Divisions of Humanities, Natural Sciences and Social Sciences. Further, they must complete twenty-four credit hours in their major area of concentration, and nine credit hours in optional, college-level courses. Of the sixty credit hours completed, twenty-four must be at the 200 (second-year) level.

Students intending to pursue primary level teaching may take an Associate Degree in General Studies, where no major subject concentration need be declared. The twenty-four credit hours normally devoted to study in the major may be completed in any approved college-level courses.

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[1] The College of The Bahamas offers a number of College Preparatory courses, some of which form part of the non-Associate Degree Teacher Education programs.

APPENDIX B

LETTER AND PRELIMINARY LIST OF TEACHER ATTRIBUTES DISTRIBUTED TO EDUCATORS IN THE BAHAMAS

01A 9105 112 Street
EDMONTON, Alberta
T6G 2C5

Dear

I am at present pursuing a programme of doctoral studies in Educational Administration at the University of Alberta, and have now arrived at the point where I am planning the research for my doctoral dissertation. I am anxious that the work that I do in this regard, while contributing to knowledge about education in general, may also contribute directly to the cause of education in the Bahamas, and assist me in my work at the College of the Bahamas.

I have therefore decided to focus upon an investigation of the relationships that exist between particular forms of teacher preparation and the subsequent performance of teachers in the field. I shall attempt, specifically, to determine the degree to which the form of teacher education offered by the College of The Bahamas appears to be successful in preparing teachers to function competently in Bahamian schools.

As a first step, I shall need to devise a profile of the general kinds of skills, attitudes and knowledge teachers should possess to perform adequately in the Bahamian school context, and it is in this connection that I am soliciting your assistance. Enclosed with this letter is a list of skills, attitudes and knowledge deemed to be generally desirable in teachers of all levels and of all subjects. The items included are those most frequently mentioned in the literature on teacher education as being important. I should be most grateful if you would (i) share with me your opinions as to the importance of each item to teachers in Bahamian schools, (ii) add to the list any others which you feel should be included, and (iii) comment upon the suitability of the language in which the items are expressed.

Your cooperation in this regard will be greatly appreciated. I shall be in Nassau until 3rd May, and can be reached at telephone 42044. After that date I shall be at the above address, to which completed forms may be returned in the envelopes provided.

Thank you in advance for your assistance.

Yours sincerely,

Keva M. Bethel

The list presented below represents an attempt to identify those attributes which are important to classroom teachers. Please indicate, by circling the appropriate number on the scale provided, your assessment of the degree of importance of each item to teachers in Bahamian schools.

ATTRIBUTES	DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE				
	Low				High
	1	2	3	4	5
A. Skill in					
1. Handling routines (taking attendance, keeping records, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
2. Maintaining classroom order	1	2	3	4	5
3. Directing disciplinary action appropriately	1	2	3	4	5
4. Arranging the learning environment	1	2	3	4	5
5. Grouping students for instruction	1	2	3	4	5
6. Making efficient use of class time	1	2	3	4	5
7. Specifying instructional objectives	1	2	3	4	5
8. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	2	3	4	5
9. Selecting appropriate instructional materials	1	2	3	4	5
10. Planning and sequencing instructional activities	1	2	3	4	5
11. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	1	2	3	4	5
12. Communicating effectively, orally and in writing	1	2	3	4	5

13.	Presenting information clearly	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Using effective questioning techniques	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Using a variety of instructional techniques	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Maintaining the pace of a lesson	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Encouraging student participation	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Building positively on students' ideas	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Providing supportive feedback	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Providing individualized instruction	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Using appropriate teaching aids	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Summarizing lessons	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Using community resources to enhance students' learning experiences	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Establishing and maintaining rapport with students	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Encouraging the development of student self-concept	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Counselling students	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Motivating students	1	2	3	4	5
28.	Interacting positively with parents	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Interacting positively with other teachers	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Interacting positively with administration	1	2	3	4	5
31.	Diagnosing students' learning needs	1	2	3	4	5

32.	Monitoring students' progress	1	2	3	4	5
33.	Evaluating students' achievements	1	2	3	4	5
34.	Evaluating own performance	1	2	3	4	5

B. Attitudes in

35.	Enthusiasm for teaching	1	2	3	4	5
36.	Acceptance and valuing of students as individuals	1	2	3	4	5
37.	Warmth and caring for students	1	2	3	4	5
38.	Respect for professional colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
39.	Respect for school support staff	1	2	3	4	5
40.	Concern for the physical environment	1	2	3	4	5
41.	Concern for continuing professional development	1	2	3	4	5

C. Knowledge and understanding of

42.	Standard English	1	2	3	4	5
43.	Subject matter	1	2	3	4	5
44.	Learning theories	1	2	3	4	5
45.	Role of the school in society	1	2	3	4	5
46.	Influences which shape children's attitudes and values	1	2	3	4	5
47.	Legal responsibilities of teachers	1	2	3	4	5

Please add to the above list any other attributes (skills, attitudes or knowledge) which you consider to be important, and comment upon the suitability of the language used.

Thank you.

APPENDIX C

TEACHERS' RATINGS OF PERFORMANCE AND PREPARATION; PILOT TEST

APPENDIX C

Teachers' Ratings of Performance and Preparation: Pilot Test (n = 26)

Teacher Behaviours	Overall Mean Rating Performance	Overall Mean Rating Preparation	Significant Difference
A. Lesson Preparation			
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	4.08	3.96	NS
2. Specifying instructional objectives	3.88	4.00	NS
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	4.00	3.60	.05
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	3.92	3.87	NS
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	3.96	4.08	NS
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	3.42	3.48	NS
B. Classroom Management			
7. Arranging the classroom environment	3.96	3.91	NS
8. Grouping students for instruction	3.80	3.76	NS
9. Maintaining classroom order	4.23	4.08	NS
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	4.23	3.76	.01
11. Making efficient use of class time	4.11	3.92	NS
12. Keeping accurate records	3.88	3.34	.05
C. Lesson Presentation			
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	3.96	3.67	NS
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	4.31	4.16	NS
15. Using Standard English appropriately	4.15	4.24	NS
16. Displaying enthusiasm	4.28	3.80	.05
17. Presenting information clearly	4.16	4.15	NS
18. Using effective questioning techniques	3.96	4.23	NS
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	3.92	4.00	NS
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	3.82	3.83	NS
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	4.50	4.24	NS
22. Building positively on students' ideas	3.85	3.92	NS
23. Using praise	4.30	4.48	NS
D. Assessment			
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	3.83	3.54	NS
25. Monitoring students' progress	3.76	3.67	NS
26. Evaluating students' achievements	4.04	3.88	NS
27. Evaluating own performance	4.08	4.04	NS
E. Interpersonal Relationships			
28. Developing positive relationships with students	4.27	3.76	.01
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	4.48	3.96	.01
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	4.35	4.08	NS
31. Motivating students to learn	4.04	4.23	NS
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	4.20	3.64	.05
33. Communicating positively with parents	3.39	2.95	.01
34. Working well with other teachers	4.44	3.44	.001
35. Working well with administrative staff	4.25	3.18	.001
36. Working well with school support staff	3.91	3.10	.01
F. Professional Awareness			
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	4.29	4.13	NS

APPENDIX D

LETTER AND QUESTIONNAIRE

TEACHERS

P.O. Box N6
NASSAU, N.P.

22 December, 1980

Dear

As part of my work towards the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Administration at The University of Alberta, Canada, I am undertaking an investigation into the extent to which the Teacher Education programmes offered by the College of The Bahamas are perceived as being effective in preparing teachers to cope adequately with their jobs in the schools. This study may, I hope, yield indications as to whether or not programme revisions are needed, and, if so, in what aspects of the programmes such revisions should be made.

As a recent graduate of a College of The Bahamas Teacher Education programme, you are in a position to provide much valuable information concerning the strengths and weaknesses of that programme as you perceive them in the light of your own personal experience in the "real world" of teaching. I am writing, therefore, to invite you to participate in this study by taking some time to give your thoughtful and honest reactions to the questions presented in the enclosed questionnaire. The responses which you and other graduates of your year provide will be summarized and analyzed in order that a composite picture of the programmes' perceived effectiveness may be obtained.

Please be assured that your responses will be held by me in utmost confidence, and that on no account will any specific response be identified with a particular individual. Questionnaires are coded for purposes of data analysis only.

You will note that I have enclosed also a questionnaire designed to be completed by your principal or head of department. Please look through the questionnaire and the letter which accompanies it to see if you would have any objection to your principal or head of department's responding to the questions posed. If you are willing to have your supervisor participate in this study, please be good enough to pass on both the questionnaire and the covering letter to the appropriate individual for completion. If you would prefer not to have your principal or head of department complete the questionnaire, simply disregard it, and indicate "no" in answer to Question 11 of Part III of your own form.

Your cooperation in participating in this study will be greatly appreciated. Please return your completed questionnaire in the stamped addressed envelope provided by 30 January, 1981.

. . . /2

May I take this opportunity to wish you and yours a joyful and blessed Christmas, and a New Year filled with happiness, peace and prosperity.

Yours very sincerely,

Keva M. Bethel

Keva M. Bethel
Vice-Principal (on study leave)
College of The Bahamas

KMB/dm

Enclosures

PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF COLLEGE OF THE BAHAMAS TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

MAIN STUDY, DECEMBER 1980

PLEASE COMPLETE AND RETURN BY 30TH JANUARY, 1981

The information you provide will help to identify the strengths and weaknesses of College of The Bahamas Teacher Education programmes.

Your responses will be regarded as being strictly confidential, and will not be released in any way which will allow them to be identified with you.

Your cooperation in completing and returning this questionnaire promptly will be greatly appreciated.

Thank you.

TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

PART I

PERSONAL DATA SHEET

Please provide the following information about yourself, your College of The Bahamas programme, and your current school. This information will help to determine the extent to which such factors may influence perceptions of teaching effectiveness and of the adequacy of Teacher Education programmes.

In each instance, please check the appropriate space in this way:

Please do
not write
in this
space.

CC

1

1 2 3 4

1. Sex

Male Female 5

2. Age:

   1. 20 - 29
   2. 30 - 39
   3. 40 - 49
   4. 50 or over 6

3. College of The Bahamas programme followed:

   1. Non-Associate Degree
   2. Associate Degree 7

4. Teacher Certification held:

   1. Primary 2. Junior Secondary 8

CC

Please do
not write
in this
space

5. If Junior Secondary, please indicate subject specialization(s):

   1. English
   2. Social Studies
   3. Mathematics
   4. Science
   5. Art
   6. Music
   7. Physical Education
   8. Home Economics
   9. Industrial Arts
   10. Other (please specify)

   .... 9, 10

6. If you are a Primary teacher, please indicate what subjects you are teaching at present:

   1. General subjects
   2. Special subject(s)
      (Please specify which) 11

7. If you are a Junior Secondary teacher, please indicate what subject(s) you are teaching at present:

   1. English
   2. Social Studies
   3. Mathematics
   4. Science
   5. Art
   6. Music
   7. Physical Education
   8. Home Economics
   9. Industrial Arts
   10. Other (please specify)

   .... 12, 13

8. Number of years of teaching experience prior to entering the College of The Bahamas:

   1. None
   2. Less than 1 year
   3. 1 - 5 years
   4. More than 5 years 14

CC
Please do
not write
in this
space

9. Type of school in which you are now teaching:

   1. Primary
   2. Junior Secondary
   3. Junior/Senior Secondary
   4. Senior Secondary
   5. All-age 15

10. Location of school:

   1. New Providence
   2. Family Island 16

11. How many students are there in the school in which you are now teaching?

   1. Under 100 students
   2. 100 - 249 students
   3. 250 - 499 students
   4. 500 - 749 students
   5. 750 - 999 students
   6. 1000 - 1249 students
   7. 1250 - 1499 students
   8. 1500 - 1749 students
   9. 1750 or more students 17

12. How many teachers (including the administrative and counselling staff as well as yourself) are there in the school in which you are now teaching?

   1. 1 teacher
   2. 2 - 4 teachers
   3. 5 - 14 teachers
   4. 15 - 24 teachers
   5. 25 - 49 teachers
   6. 50 - 74 teachers
   7. 75 - 99 teachers
   8. 100 or more teachers 18

PART II

TEACHER PROFICIENCY AND ADEQUACY OF PREPARATION

In this section you are asked to reflect on your teaching experience over the past year and to indicate, by circling the appropriate number on each scale, (1) how well you feel you are doing in each area listed, and (2) how well you feel your Teacher Education programme prepared you in each area.

Circle 1 if Very Poorly

Circle 2 if Poorly

Circle 3 if Adequately

Circle 4 if Well

Circle 5 if Very Well

Teacher Behaviours	How well are you doing?					How well did your Teacher Education programme prepare you?					CC Please do not write in this space
	Very Poorly 1	Poorly 2	Ade-quately 3	Well 4	Very Well 5	Very Poorly 1	Poorly 2	Ade-quately 3	Well 4	Very Well 5	
A. Lesson Preparation											
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	19, 20
2. Specifying instructional objectives	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	21, 22
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	23, 24
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	25, 26
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	27, 28
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	29, 30
B. Classroom Management											
7. Arranging the classroom environment	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	31, 32
8. Grouping students for instruction	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	33, 34
9. Maintaining classroom order	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	35, 36
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	37, 38
11. Making efficient use of class time	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	39, 40
12. Keeping accurate records	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	41, 42

Teacher Behaviours	How well are you doing?					How well did your Teacher Education programme prepare you?					CC
	Very Poorly 1	Poorly 2	Ade-quately 3	Well 4	Very Well 5	Very Poorly 1	Poorly 2	Ade-quately 3	Well 4	Very Well 5	Please do not write in this space
C. Lesson Presentation											
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	43, 44
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	45, 46
15. Using Standard English appropriately	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	47, 48
16. Displaying enthusiasm	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	49, 50
17. Presenting information clearly	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	51, 52
18. Using effective questioning techniques	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	53, 54
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	55, 56
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	57, 58
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	59, 60
22. Building positively on students' ideas	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	61, 62
23. Using praise	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	63, 64

Teacher Behaviour	Very Poorly 1	Poorly 2	Ade-quately 3	Well 4	Very Well 5	Very Poorly 1	Poorly 2	Ade-quately 3	Well 4	Very Well 5	CC Please do not write in this space
D. Assessment											
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	65, 66
25. Monitoring students' progress	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	67, 68
26. Evaluating students' achievements	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	69, 70
27. Evaluating own performance	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	71, 72
E. Interpersonal Relationships											
28. Developing positive relationships with students	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	73, 74
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	75, 76
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	77, 78
31. Motivating students to learn	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	79, 80
											2
											1 2 3 4
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	5, 6
33. Communicating positively with parents	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	7, 8
34. Working well with other teachers	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	9, 10
35. Working well with administrative staff	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	11, 12
36. Working well with school support staff	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	13, 14

Teacher Behaviour	Very Poorly 1	Poorly 2	Ade-quately 3	Well 4	Very Well 5	Very Poorly 1	Poorly 2	Ade-quately 3	Well 4	Very Well 5	CC Please do not write in this space
F. Professional Awareness											
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	15, 16

PART III

GENERAL PERCEPTIONS

Please respond freely to the following questions:

1. Which five of the 37 teacher behaviours listed in Part II of this questionnaire do you consider to be most important in your work?

   Numbers _______, _______, _______, _______ and _______.

2. Which five of the 37 teacher behaviours listed in Part II of this questionnaire do you consider to be least important in your work?

   Numbers _______, _______, _______, _______ and _______.

3. Are there any behaviours other than those listed in Part II of this questionnaire that you consider to be important in your work? If so, please list them here.

4. If you have listed additional important teacher behaviours in answer to Question 3 of this section, please indicate how well you think you are doing in those areas, and how well you feel your Teacher Education programme prepared you in them.

5. Please comment on the value to your preparation for teaching of each of the following:

   1. The English Language courses which you took in the Humanities Division.

2. The other Humanities courses which you took.

3. The Mathematics courses which you took in the Natural Sciences Division.

4. The other Natural Science courses which you took.

5. The Social Science courses which you took.

6. The methods courses which you took in the Education Division.

7. The other Education courses which you took.

8. The Teaching Practice experiences in which you were engaged.

6. Please give your views concerning the adequacy of the following at the College of The Bahamas:

1. Library resources

2. Study facilities

3. Counselling arrangements

4. Opportunities for extra-curricular activities

7. What is your overall opinion of your College of The Bahamas Teacher Education programme?

8. What suggestions would you make for the improvement of the Teacher Education programmes at the College of The Bahamas?

9. Are there any aspects of teacher preparation which you feel would be better dealt with in an in-service training programme rather than at the College of The Bahamas? If so, please specify which.

10. Any other comments.

11. Have you passed on the principal's questionnaire to him/her?

Yes No

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

APPENDIX E

LETTER AND QUESTIONNAIRE

SUPERVISORS

P.O. Box N6
NASSAU, N.P.

22 December, 1980

Dear

As part of my work towards the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Administration at The University of Alberta, Canada, I am undertaking an investigation into the extent to which the Teacher Education programmes offered by the College of The Bahamas are perceived as being effective in preparing teachers to cope adequately with their jobs in the schools.

According to the records of the Ministry of Education and Culture, , a recent graduate of the College of The Bahamas, is currently teaching under your supervision. I am concerned to discover how well College of The Bahamas graduates appear to be carrying out their teaching responsibilities, so as to determine how adequately their preparation programmes have equipped them for those tasks. I am writing, therefore, to invite you to participate in this study by taking some time to give your honest reactions to the questions posed in the enclosed questionnaire. Your responses and those of other supervisors of College of The Bahamas graduates will help to identify areas of strength and weakness within preparation programmes, and provide a useful source of information upon which future planning and programme revision may be based.

Please be assured that all responses will be held by me in strictest confidence, and that on no account will a specific response be identified with a particular individual. Questionnaires are coded for purposes of data analysis only.

If you have already participated in the pilot phase of this research, please do not feel obliged to complete again Parts I or III of the questionnaire, unless there is additional information you would like to provide. Similarly, if you have at your school more than one teacher participating in this study, Parts I and III need only be completed once: for the second and subsequent teachers, only your assessment of their performance will be needed.

If you feel that a head of department or some other supervisor is a more appropriate person to respond, please be good enough to pass on the questionnaire to that individual.

. . . /2

Please return the completed questionnaire in the stamped addressed envelope provided by 30 January, 1981. Your cooperation in participating in this research will be greatly appreciated.

May I take this opportunity to wish you and yours a joyful and blessed Christmas, and a New Year filled with happiness, peace and prosperity.

Yours very sincerely,

Keva M. Bethel

Keva M. Bethel
Vice-Principal (on study leave)
College of The Bahamas

KMB/dm

Enclosure

PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF COLLEGE OF THE BAHAMAS
TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

PRINCIPALS' QUESTIONNAIRE

MAIN STUDY, DECEMBER 1980

PLEASE COMPLETE AND RETURN BY 30 JANUARY, 1981

PRINCIPALS' QUESTIONNAIRE

PART I

PERSONAL DATA SHEET

Please provide the following information about yourself and your school. This information will help to determine the extent to which such factors may influence perceptions of teaching effectiveness.

In each instance, please check the appropriate space in this way: ☑

CC

Please do not write in this space

1			
1	2	3	4

1. Sex:

   1. Male ☐ 2. Female ☐ 5

2. Age:

   1. 20 - 29 years ☐
   2. 30 - 39 years ☐
   3. 40 - 49 years ☐
   4. 50 - 59 years ☐
   5. 60 years or over ☐ 6

CC
Please do
not write
in this
space

3. Total years of teaching experience:

1. Less than 1 year ☐
2. 1 - 4 years ☐
3. 5 - 9 years ☐
4. 10 - 14 years ☐
5. 15 - 19 years ☐
6. 20 - 24 years ☐
7. 25 - 29 years ☐
8. 30 - 39 years ☐
9. 40 years or more ☐

7

4. Present position:

1. Principal ☐
2. Vice-Principal ☐
3. Senior Master/Mistress ☐
4. Head of Department ☐
5. Other (please specify) ☐

.... 8

5. If Head of Department, please specify subject area:

1. English ☐
2. Social Studies ☐
3. Mathematics ☐
4. Science ☐
5. Art ☐
6. Music ☐
7. Physical Education ☐
8. Home Economics ☐
9. Industrial Arts ☐
10. Other (please specify)

.... 9

CC

Please do
not write
in this
space

6. Number of years spent in present position:

1. Less than 1 year ☐
2. 1 - 5 years ☐
3. 6 - 10 years ☐
4. More than 10 years ☐ 10

7. Total number of years spent in previous administrative or supervisory positions:

1. None ☐
2. Less than 1 year ☐
3. 1 - 5 years ☐
4. 6 - 10 years ☐
5. More than 10 years ☐ 11

8. Type of school in which you are currently working:

1. Primary ☐
2. Junior Secondary ☐
3. Junior/Senior Secondary ☐
4. Senior Secondary ☐
5. All-age ☐ 12

9. Location of school:

1. New Providence ☐
2. Family Island ☐ 13

CC

Please do
not write
in this
space

10. How many student are there in your school?

1. Under 100 students ☐
2. 100 - 249 students ☐
3. 250 - 499 students ☐
4. 500 - 749 students ☐
5. 750 - 999 students ☐
6. 1000 - 1249 students ☐
7. 1250 - 1499 students ☐
8. 1500 - 1749 students ☐
9. 1750 students or more ☐ 14

11. How many members of staff (including counselling and administrative staff and yourself) are there in your school?

1. 1 teacher ☐
2. 2 - 4 teachers ☐
3. 5 - 14 teachers ☐
4. 15 - 24 teachers ☐
5. 25 - 49 teachers ☐
6. 50 - 74 teachers ☐
7. 75 - 99 teachers ☐
8. 100 or more teachers ☐ 15

PART II

TEACHER PROFICIENCY

Please reflect on the performance of Mr./Ms. who is currently teaching under your supervision, and indicate, by circling the appropriate number of the scale provided, how well you feel he/she is doing in the areas listed.

Circle 1 if Very Poorly

Circle 2 if Poorly

Circle 3 if Adequately

Circle 4 if Well

Circle 5 if Very Well

	How well is he/she doing?					CC
	Very Poorly 1	Poorly 2	Ade-quately 3	Well 4	Very Well 5	Please do not write in this space
A. Lesson Preparation						
1. Selecting appropriate subject content	1	2	3	4	5	16
2. Specifying instructional objectives	1	2	3	4	5	17
3. Using knowledge of how children learn in the planning of teaching activities	1	2	3	4	5	18
4. Selecting appropriate teaching materials	1	2	3	4	5	19
5. Preparing appropriate teaching aids	1	2	3	4	5	20
6. Drawing on community resources to enhance children's learning experiences	1	2	3	4	5	21

	How well is he/she doing?					CC
	Very Poorly	Poorly	Ade-quately	Well	Very Well	Please do not write in this space
	1	2	3	4	5	
B. Classroom Management						
7. Arranging the classroom environment	1	2	3	4	5	22
8. Grouping students for instruction	1	2	3	4	5	23
9. Maintaining classroom order	1	2	3	4	5	24
10. Taking appropriate disciplinary action when necessary	1	2	3	4	5	25
11. Making efficient use of class time	1	2	3	4	5	26
12. Keeping accurate records	1	2	3	4	5	27
C. Lesson Presentation						
13. Approaching the teaching task in a businesslike manner	1	2	3	4	5	28
14. Displaying thorough knowledge of subject matter	1	2	3	4	5	29
15. Using Standard English appropriately	1	2	3	4	5	30
16. Displaying enthusiasm	1	2	3	4	5	31
17. Presenting information clearly	1	2	3	4	5	32

	How well is he/she doing?					CC
	Very Poorly 1	Poorly 2	Adequately 3	Well 4	Very Well 5	Please do not write in this space
18. Using effective questioning techniques	1	2	3	4	5	33
19. Using a variety of instructional techniques	1	2	3	4	5	34
20. Individualizing instruction when necessary	1	2	3	4	5	35
21. Encouraging students to participate in class	1	2	3	4	5	36
22. Building positively on students' ideas	1	2	3	4	5	37
23. Using praise	1	2	3	4	5	38
D. Assessment						
24. Diagnosing students' learning needs	1	2	3	4	5	39
25. Monitoring students' progress	1	2	3	4	5	40
26. Evaluating students' achievements	1	2	3	4	5	41
27. Evaluating own performance	1	2	3	4	5	42

	How well is he/she doing?					CC
	Very Poorly 1	Poorly 2	Adequately 3	Well 4	Very Well 5	Please do not write in this space
E. Interpersonal Relationships						
28. Developing positive relationships with students.	1	2	3	4	5	43
29. Displaying warmth and caring for students	1	2	3	4	5	44
30. Displaying acceptance of students as individuals	1	2	3	4	5	45
31. Motivating students to learn	1	2	3	4	5	46
32. Encouraging students to develop self-respect	1	2	3	4	5	47
33. Communicating positively with parents	1	2	3	4	5	48
34. Working well with other teachers	1	2	3	4	5	49
35. Working well with administrative staff	1	2	3	4	5	50
36. Working well with school support staff	1	2	3	4	5	51

	How well is he/she doing?					CC -
	Very Poorly	Poorly	Adequately	Well	Very Well	Please do not write in this space
	1	2	3	4	5	
F. Professional Awareness						
37. Displaying concern for continuing professional development	1	2	3	4	5	52

PART III

GENERAL PERCEPTIONS

Please respond freely to the following questions:

1. Which five of the 37 teacher behaviours listed in Part II of this questionnaire do you consider to be most important to teachers in your school?

Numbers ______, ______, ______, ______ and ______.

2. Which five of the 37 teacher behaviours listed in Part II of this questionnaire do you consider to be least important to teachers in your school?

Numbers ______, ______, ______, ______ and ______.

3. Are there any teacher behaviours, other than those listed in Part II of this questionnaire, that you consider to be important to teachers in your school? If so, please list them here.

4. What appear to be the greatest strengths of teachers prepared at the College of The Bahamas?

5. What appear to be the most serious shortcomings of teachers prepared at the College of The Bahamas?

6. What suggestions would you make for improving College of The Bahamas Teacher Education programmes?

7. Are there any aspects of teacher preparation which you feel would be more appropriately dealt with in an in-service training programme rather than at the College of The Bahamas?

8. Any other comments.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW GUIDE

TEACHERS

APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW GUIDE

TEACHERS

1. How long have you spent in this current posting?

2. What grade levels are you teaching at the present time?

3. What subjects do you teach? (Are these the same ones in which you specialized at College?)

4. Do you feel that, overall, you were adequately prepared to meet the demands of your job? Can you explain why/why not?

5. Thinking back to your teacher education program, what courses would you say have proven to be of most value to you in your teaching? Why is that?

6. Which courses would you say were of least value to you in terms of your teaching responsibilities? Why?

7. Do you feel that the courses you took in subject content provided you with sufficient and appropriate knowledge to cope with the demands of the curriculum followed in your school? If not, can you explain what difficulties you have encountered?

8. Do you encounter any problems in the area of lesson preparation? (If yes) Could you give an example?

9. Do you have access to adequate resources from which to select or prepare suitable teaching materials and aids?

10. Are you ever called upon to improvise? (If yes) In what kinds of circumstances?

11. Was there anything in your preparation program which prepared you to deal with this sort of situation?

12. Are there any resources within the community which you find it possible to draw on in the course of your work?

13. Did your program indicate to you ways in which you might make use of such resources?

14. In the area of classroom management, have you encountered any particular difficulties? What exactly?

15. Do you feel that you received sufficient preparation in these areas?

16. Do you encounter any problems of discipline? Can you give me an idea of what sort?

17. Was there anything in your teacher education program that gave you the skills necessary for dealing with such situations?

18. In the area of Lesson Presentation, do you feel that you are able to get your material across to your students as you would like to? Can you explain to me why/why not?

19. Do you feel that the program gave you an adequate range of teaching methods to enable you to present your material effectively? Is there any method you favour more than another?

20. Do you find that your students participate willingly in class? Is their contribution usually helpful to the lesson?

21. What means do you find to be most effective in getting students to try hard at their work?

22. Do you find that you were adequately prepared to assess your students' learning needs? What kinds of difficulties, if any, do you come across in this regard?

23. Do you find that you are able to gear your teaching to suit the varying needs of your students? (If no) Can you explain why not?

24. Do you find that you are able to keep track of the progress of each student? (If no) Why is that?

25. Did your teacher education program suggest ways in which this could be done?

26. What about student evaluation? What system of testing is followed in this school? Are you responsible for evaluating your students' achievements yourself?

27. Do you feel confident in your ability to do this? Were you given sufficient preparation in this area?

28. Are you ever called upon to evaluate your own performance? Do you find that you are able to do this? Was this something that was stressed in your preparation program?

29. How would you describe your relationship with your students?

30. Were there any aspects of the teacher education program which were helpful in suggesting ways in which you might establish good relationships with your students?

31. How about your dealings with other teachers? Have you encountered any problems in this regard?

32. Did the program deal with the question of building relationships with colleagues?

33. Do you have any difficulty in relating to the administrative staff of the school?

34. What about parents? Do you come into contact with them often? Do you find that you are able to relate well to parents? Did the program provide adequate preparation in this area?

35. In the course of your work, do you come into contact with other members of the community? (If yes) Do you find that you are able to deal comfortably with this aspect of your teacher's role? Did anything in the program prepare you for it?

36. Would you say that the teaching practice you did exposed you sufficiently to the various dimensions of the teaching job? (If no) In what ways did it fail to do this?

37. In the light of your current experience, would you say that it was a helpful experience? Why?

38. When you went out on teaching practice, did you feel adequately prepared to enter the classroom and teach?

39. Did you receive adequate help and support from your college supervisor? From your cooperating teacher?

40. What about the timing of the teaching practice? Do you feel that it was appropriate?

41. Was your teaching practice long enough? What would you suggest as a more suitable length of time for this experience?

42. Are there any aspects of your present work for which you received no preparation at all at college?

43. Are there any aspects of your work for which you received too little preparation?

44. Were there any aspects of the program that you feel received too much emphasis?

45. Thinking back over your program, what would you say the overall quality of instruction was like?

46. Did you find faculty members approachable? helpful?

47. Did you receive adequate information concerning the requirements of your program?

48. Did you experience any difficulty in making the transition from the academic divisions to the Education division?

49. What is your opinion of the role of the University of The West Indies in the teacher education programs at the College of The Bahamas?

50. With regard to your present work, how are you enjoying teaching?

51. Have you received the help and support you feel you have needed during this past year?

52. Do you feel that there would be any value in teachers' retaining a link with the college during their initial year in the schools?

53. Are there any aspects of teaching for which you feel you require additional training?

54. Do you plan to pursue further studies if you are given the opportunity to do so?

55. Are there any other points you would like to make?

APPENDIX G

INTERVIEW GUIDE

SUPERVISORS

APPENDIX G

INTERVIEW GUIDE

SUPERVISORS

1. Over the past few years, have many College of The Bahamas graduates been posted to schools in which you have worked?

2. Is it possible for you to give a general opinion as to their competence? About the apparent quality of their preparation?

3. Specifically, would you say that, in general, they appear to have been adequately prepared in the area of subject content to deal with the demands of the curriculum of your school? What appear to be some of the weaknesses you have observed in this regard?

4. Do you, in fact, have a specified syllabus in each subject, for each grade level?

5. Do you feel that it would be advantageous for College of The Bahamas content courses to be geared more specifically toward the type of material to be taught in the schools?

6. In your experience, are College of The Bahamas graduates whom you have observed able to prepare their lessons adequately? What specific kinds of weakness have you found in this area?

7. Would you say that your school has adequate resources in terms of teaching materials and teaching aids? If not, do C.O.B. graduates display an ability to improvise when necessary?

8. Do College of The Bahamas graduates appear to be able to cope adequately in the area of classroom management? What kinds of difficulties, if any, do they encounter? Do they appear to have been given adequate preparation in this area?

9. In terms of actual classroom performance, do C.O.B. graduates seem to be able to use effective teaching methods? What weaknesses, if any, have you observed in this regard?

10. Do these graduates appear to be able to communicate effectively -- in speech? in writing?

11. Are they able, in your view, to assess the learning needs of their students?

12. Do they seem to be able to gear their teaching to suit the varying needs of their students?

13. Do they seem to be able to evaluate their students' performance? Are there any specific weaknesses you have observed in this area?

14. Do C.O.B. graduates appear to be able to evaluate their own performance?

15. In terms of interpersonal relationships, do these teachers seem to be able to relate well to their students? Other teachers? Administrative staff?

16. What about parents -- do they often come into contact with parents? Do they seem to be able to communicate effectively with parents when the occasion arises?

17. (Family Island supervisors only) Are there any particular needs that you feel prevail in a Family Island situation for which College of The Bahamas graduates seem to be ill-prepared?

18. In this connection, would you feel that a period of teaching practice in a Family Island context would be advisable for all prospective Bahamian teachers?

19. (All) Do you normally receive College of The Bahamas students into your school for teaching practice?

20. What is your opinion of this exercise as it is presently organized?

21. Are you given an opportunity to consult with the College before the teaching practice takes place? To what extent are the teaching practice arrangements formally spelled out?

22. Does your school have an opportunity to provide feedback to the college concerning the practice?

23. In what way do you feel the teaching practice experience could be improved?

24. When new teachers join your staff, how much supervision and help are you or other members of your staff able to provide?

25. Do you feel that it would in any way be helpful to have the college continue to be involved in the support of new teachers during their first year of teaching?

26. What are your views concerning in-service education for teachers? Are there any aspects of teaching you feel ought to be pursued by this means?

27. Are there any additional comments you would like to make?

APPENDIX H

# LETTER REQUESTING DETAILS OF POSTINGS OF STUDY PARTICIPANTS

P.O. Box N6
NASSAU, N.P.
Bahamas

September 10, 1980

Miss Marjorie Davis
Director of Education
Ministry of Education and Culture
P.O. Box N3913
NASSAU, N.P.
Bahamas

Dear Miss Davis:

RE: Dissertation Research -- Keva Bethel

During our discussions earlier this year, you were kind enough to indicate your agreement to my inviting recent College of The Bahamas teacher education graduates, now teaching in Ministry of Education schools, to participate in the research study which I propose to undertake as the subject of my dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at The University of Alberta. I am now writing to inform you of the details of the proposed study and to seek approval of the procedures planned.

The study will be evaluative in nature, in that the purpose of the investigation will be to determine how effective the teacher preparation experiences offered at the College of The Bahamas are perceived as being by (a) graduates of those programmes themselves, and (b) individuals charged with the responsibility of supervising the performance of those graduates during the early years of their teaching careers.

The target population of the main study will be all those teachers who completed their certification in 1979 -- i.e., those who have recently completed, or who are in the process of completing, their first year of teaching after training. However, in order to test the efficacy of the research instruments, I propose also to carry out a pilot study, using samples drawn from two groups: (1) 1978 College of The Bahamas teacher education graduates, and (2) those teachers who have just received their certification this year.

The research instruments will consist of written questionnaires, to be completed by the teachers and by their supervisors, and semi-structured interviews, carried out with representative individuals from both the teacher and the supervisor groups. I hope by these means to elicit information as to the perceived strengths and weaknesses of the programmes which may provide a useful source of data upon which future planning or revision of teacher education programmes may be based.

In order to make contact with the teachers concerned for both the pilot and the main study, I shall need information as to their current school postings. Here I must again seek your kind assistance. I enclose lists of the three groups of teachers in question, and should very much appreciate it if their current postings could be indicated in the spaces provided. I trust that this will not prove too great an imposition; if there is any way in which I can be of assistance in this regard, please let me know. I shall also be happy to discuss this proposed research with you further, at your convenience, and to show you the draft versions of the instruments.

Please accept my thanks for all your help and encouragement.

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Yours sincerely,

Keva M. Bethel

Keva M. Bethel

KMB/dm

Enclosure

APPENDIX I

FOLLOW-UP LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS

P.O. Box N6
NASSAU, N.P.
Bahamas

15th February, 1981

Dear

I trust that by now you will have received a questionnaire concerning your College of The Bahamas Teacher Education programme which I posted to you a number of weeks ago. While I realize that the return date cited on the form has already passed, I am writing to encourage you to complete the questionnaire nevertheless, and to return it to me at your earliest convenience. I should very much value your contribution to this research.

If you have passed on your principal's questionnaire to him, perhaps you would be good enough, also, to encourage him to return his copy as well, if he has not already done so.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation in this matter.

With all best wishes,

Yours sincerely,

Keva M. Bethel

Keva M. Bethel

KMB/dm